

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP
STYLE AND EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT: AN
EXPLORATORY STUDY IN AN ELECTRICITY
UTILITY OF SOUTH AFRICA.**

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by

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this research thesis is my own original work and that all sources have been accurately reported and acknowledged, and that this document has not been previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted at any university in order to obtain academic qualifications.

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates the relationship between leadership styles and different types of organisational commitment in Eskom Eastern Region. The literature provided discusses the leadership and organisational commitment. Information was gathered, using two instruments, from a sample of 86 leaders and 334 raters. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, which was formulated from Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range Leadership Development Theory, was used to determine leadership style within the organisation. Employee commitment was captured using Bagram's (2004) Organisational Commitment, a South African adaptation of Meyer and Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model of employee commitment. Leadership was identified as the independent variable and organisational commitment as the dependent variable. Data obtained from each of the research instruments was then statistically analysed.

Two-tailed correlation analysis showed that although the relationship is not strong, there is a positive relationship between the transformational leadership behaviours and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment). The correlation analysis also indicates a weak, but significant, positive relationship between transactional leadership behaviours and continuance commitment. However, no statistically significant correlation was found between transactional leadership behaviours and affective commitment as well as between transactional leadership behaviours and normative commitment. The correlation results showed a weak, but significant, negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and affective commitment. There was no statistically significant correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and continuance commitment as well as between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and normative commitment.

Overall findings from this study suggest that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours do play important roles in determining levels of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. These findings also reveal that the laissez-faire leadership behaviour had a negative relationship with affective commitment. This research therefore adds a new dimension to the body of literature that will help researchers' efforts to understand the relationship between leadership style and organisational

commitment. As this research takes place in the South African context, it contributes to the bank of findings relating to the development of organisational commitment.

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CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 SETTING OF THE STUDY

Today's world is more turbulent, chaotic and challenging than ever before (Kanter, 1995). Organisational changes are increasingly becoming a major component of everyday organisational functioning. The basic principles of doing business successfully are fundamentally changing. Today's customers shape organisations by demanding what they want, when they want it, how they want it and what they will pay for it (Hammer & Champy, 1993). The historical boundary between customer, supplier and competitors is increasingly becoming blurred (Allio, 1993). Many organisations have responded to these competitive pressures by downsizing, restructuring and transformation, and thus created a less secure organisational climate.

The Electricity Distribution Industry (EDI) in South Africa is no exception to the abovementioned environment. Thus, the South African government is in the process of restructuring the EDI. This is due to the fact that the current electricity distribution industry is highly fragmented, with one very large distributor, several medium-sized players, and many very small players. This diffuses specialised skills, reduces efficiencies and puts small municipal distributors under significant pressure (Department of Minerals and Energy, 2001). The initial change intended will be the separation of Eskom Distribution from Eskom to merge with other electricity distributors such as municipalities to form six *Regional Electricity Distributors* (RED's). Each RED is to operate as an independent business unit, operating as a separate company, with responsibility for the electricity services within its region. Eskom's Eastern Distribution Region is one of the players in the future RED scenario and covers the most part of KwaZulu Natal.

The current environment is accompanied by shortage of skilled, competent and committed employees. Ulrich (2002) argues that the competitive edge of companies no longer lies in its product, but in its people. According to Gunnigle, Heraty and Morley (1971) people are the lifeblood of organisations and they represent the most potent and valuable resources of

organisations. No organisation can perform at peak levels unless each employee is committed to the organisation's objectives and works as an effective team member. It is no longer good enough to have employees who come to work faithfully everyday and do their jobs independently. Employees now have to think like entrepreneurs while working in teams and have to prove their worth. Ulrich (2002) regards people as intangible resources which are difficult to imitate. People are becoming a source of competitive advantage for most organisations (Ulrich, 2000). Thus, the commitment of competent employees is critical to the success of the organisation.

1.2 THE PROBLEM AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Eskom Eastern Region has long recognised human capital as a competitive advantage. Thus, for Eskom's vision to become a reality, its leadership relies on employees to execute strategic objectives. The employees' knowledge, experience, skills, expertise, the ability to collectively innovate and their decision making processes is key to the survival of Eskom. However, Eskom Eastern Region is currently losing competent employees to other regions (such as the Western, Central, North West and Northern) for the same salaries and benefits. Turnover among these competent employees results in interruptions in normal operations, loss of efficiency, increased replacement and recruitment cost, project delays, increased customer dissatisfaction, scheduling difficulties and the depletion of the Eskom Eastern Region's intellectual capital. Abbasi and Hollman (2000) argue that when an organisation loses a critical employee, there is negative impact on innovation, consistency in providing service to customers may be jeopardized, and major delays in the delivery of services to customers may occur. Bennett and Durkin (2000) states that the negative effects associated with a lack of employee commitment include absenteeism and turnover. They found that employee commitment is positively related to organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, motivation and attendance. Committed employees usually act in the interests of their organisation and/or the customers being served by the organisation (Romzek, 1990). Furthermore, they tend to generate high performance business outcomes as measured by increased sales, improved productivity, profitability and enhanced employee retention (Roger, 2001). Consequently, lack of employee commitment threatens the survival of the organisation because a loss of a competent employee is a loss of competitive advantage for the organisation. It does not take many uncommitted employees to prevent an organisation

from prospering and ceding competitive advantage to competitors. Swanepoel, Erasmus, van Wyk and Scheck (2000) emphasised that the ability of an organisation, to successfully implement business strategies, to gain a competitive advantage and optimise human capital, largely depends on the leadership styles that encourage employee commitment. Thus, the ability of the Eskom Eastern Region's leadership to retain competent employees is critical to its survival.

Ulrich (1998) states that as modern organisation operating in an environment characterised by uncertainty and constant change, the commitment of employees to the organisation is a critical determinant in the success or failure of organisations in their quest for competitive advantage. Nijhof, de Jong and Beukhof (1998) believe that the success of the organisation depends not only on how the organisation exploits its human capital and competencies, but also on how it stimulates commitment to the organisation. Pfeffer, 1998 states that committed employees who are highly motivated to contribute their time and energy to the pursuit of organisational goals are increasingly acknowledged to be the primary asset available to an organisation. They provide the intellectual capital that, for many organisations, has become their most critical asset (Stewart, 1997). Furthermore, employees who share a commitment to the organisation and their collective well-being are more apt to generate the social capital - found in relationships characterised by high levels of trust and shared values - that facilitate organisational learning. According to Iverson and Buttigieg (1998) committed employees accept organisational values easily while taking responsibility for their actions. High levels of commitment to the organisation are likely to reduce absenteeism, staff turnover and increase levels of job satisfaction and performance. These positive benefits of committed employees are recognised as important determinants of organisational effectiveness.

In the South African context, Meyer and Botha (2000) believe that organisations who institute formal and informal ways of improving employee commitment are better equipped to deal with the challenges of labour unrest and industrial action. Meyer and Allen (1991) conceptualised commitment as a three-dimensional construct: Affective, normative and continuance commitment. They define affective commitment as an emotional attachment to the organisation. Employees with affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Meyer and Allen (1991) describe continuance

commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation. Employees are seen to calculate the costs of leaving the organisation versus the benefits of staying with the organisation. Employees with continuance commitment also continue employment with the organisation because they need to do so. Finally, employees who display normative commitment possess a feeling of obligation to continue employment with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees with normative commitment have internal normative pressures to act in a way that satisfy the organisation's goals and interests. Normative committed employees remain with the organisation because they feel they ought to.

What factors contribute to an employee's desire to remain committed to the organisation? This is a question that every leader must address in order to maintain a competent workforce. The reasons why employees leave an organisation range from a lack of job satisfaction, incompatibility with others at work, to a changing family structure (Ackoff, 1999). Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) pointed out that employees appreciate leaders and organisations that provide opportunities for decision latitude, challenges, responsibility and meaning, impact, as well as self-determination. Jermier and Berkes (1979) discovered that employees who were allowed to participate in decision-making had higher levels of commitment to the organisation. DeCotiis and Summers (1987) also found that when employees were treated with consideration, they displayed greater levels of commitment. These employees are more likely to reciprocate by being more committed to their organisations than employees in more traditional organisations. Bass and Avolio (1994) also suggests that transformational leaders influence followers' organisational commitment by encouraging them to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision-making processes, inspiring loyalty, while recognizing and appreciating the different needs of each follower to develop their personal potential. According to Pruijn and Boucher (1994), transformational leadership is an extension of transactional leadership and that a leader may display various degrees of transactional or transformational leadership style depending on the situation. In addition, Meyer and Botha (2000) suggest that Full Range Leadership is a strategic organisation development intervention, designed to enhance the impact of leadership on commitment. Committed employees, working in an environment of trust, flexibility, and empowerment, are expected to act in the best interests of an organisation (Liden, et al., 2000).

This has sparked the need to enquire about the relationship, between leadership styles and employee commitment to the organisation, in order to deal effectively with the problem. Accumulating evidence suggests that leadership style is positively associated with work attitudes and behaviours at both an individual and organisational level (Dumdum, Lowe & Avolio, 2002). According to Walumbwa and Lawler (2003), there is considerable research available suggesting that the transformational leadership style is positively associated with organisational commitment in a variety of organisational settings and cultures. Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) indicated that transformational leaders are able to influence employees' organisational commitment by promoting higher levels of intrinsic value associated with creating a higher level of personal commitment on the part of the leader and followers to a common vision, mission, and organisational goals. Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) indicated that by encouraging employees to seek new ways to approach problems and challenges as well as identifying with employees' needs, transformational leaders are able to motivate their employees to get more involved in their work, resulting in higher levels of organisational commitment. Bycio, Hackett and Allen (1995) reported positive correlations between leadership behaviours such as charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, and contingent reward on the one hand, and affective, continuance, and normative commitment, on the other hand. However, the influence of leadership's style to employee's commitment to the organisation has not been adequately addressed in the electrical distribution industry. Thus, there is a need for greater understanding of the relationship between the leadership style and work-related attitudes (such as employee commitment) in order to develop a leadership style that will encourage organisational commitment.

The results of the study would help the leadership of Eskom Eastern Region to practise leadership behaviours that will encourage employee commitment to the organisation. The study will also contribute to the body of knowledge by providing information on the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment.

1.3 THE GOAL OF THE RESEARCH

The overall reason for the research is to identify different aspects of leadership style that have an influence on employee commitment in general and be able to determine the

relationship between the two. The results of the research could mould how future leadership training will be configured within the company being researched. Thus, the main objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to an electricity utility in South Africa. The hypothesis is concerned with the relationship between the leadership style being practised within the organisation and its influence on the employee commitment. The null hypothesis states that there is no statistical significant relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to the organisation and the alternate hypothesis states that there is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to the organisation.

1.4 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into five chapters. Besides this introductory chapter in which the problem is defined, the research motivated and the aim as well as method of the study provided, the chapters are organised as follows:

1.4.1 Chapter 2 and 3: Literature Review

The literature review section is divided into two main chapters; a review on the literature on leadership and organisational commitment.

The chapter on leadership has the following major topics:

- The concept of leadership
- Leadership versus Management
- Leadership theories
- Full Range Leadership Approach

The chapter on organisational commitment has the following topics:

- The concept of organisational commitment
- Organisational Commitment as a multidimensional construct
- Development of Organisational Commitment
- Leadership style and organisational commitment

The literature review incorporates the construct of both leadership styles and organisational commitment and further goes on to critique both definitions. It offers an operational definition and history of both leadership and organisational commitment adopted by the researcher. Both reviews conclude with propositions from literature aimed at guiding the investigation of the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment undertaken in this study.

1.4.2 Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The research methodology chapter describes the methodology employed in the investigation of the relationship between leadership styles and the commitment of employees to Eskom Eastern Region. It identifies and briefly describes the paradigm of the research and then goes on to describe how the sample was determined; the administration of the questionnaires; the history of the measuring instruments used (*Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* and *Organisational Commitment Questionnaire*); their reliability and validity; and the research's ethical considerations.

1.4.3 Chapter 5: Analysis of results

This chapter contains the results, descriptions of the results followed by the analysis of the relationship (interpretation of the results) and explanations on what the researcher subscribes to the results.

1.4.4 Chapter 6: Discussion, recommendations and conclusions

The thesis ends with a discussion, concluding remarks and recommendations on further research on the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment. The chapter also discusses the implications of these results in the light of the literature review. Research limitations are identified and implications of the research are also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO: LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is one of the world's oldest and most topical issues. Fisher (1999) identified a paradox regarding leadership in the sense that most professionals cannot lead, and they do not want to follow. Great leaders are even more in demand in modern times as society and technology becomes increasingly advanced. The turbulent business environment has created a need for leaders who can meet the demands and challenges of organisations.

This chapter presents an overview of the evolution of the concept of leadership. Leadership is then discussed in terms of traits theory, behavioural approaches, and situational or contingency approaches. The new leadership theories, namely transformational and transactional leadership, are discussed, after which the integrated approach of Full Range Leadership Development Theory is reviewed. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory will be critically reviewed in terms of how it has been used to measure transformational and transactional leadership.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

There are a number of definitions and views on the nature of leadership in the literature. Yukl (1989:252) states that "researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them." Sorenson (2002) notes that Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, first published in 1974, listed 4,725 studies of leadership and 189 pages of references, yet Stogdill himself concluded that the endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership.

Burns, in his landmark book, Leadership (1978) observed that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. Commenting on the subject of leadership, Northouse (2001) concluded that despite the abundance of writing on the topic,

leadership has presented a major challenge to practitioners and researchers interested in understanding the nature of leadership. It is a highly valued phenomenon that is very complex.

Nirenberg (2001) commented that there are as many definitions of the concept of leadership as there are authors on the subject of leadership. Bass (1990a) echoes this sentiment by suggesting that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Some of the authors have defined leadership as a position, a person, a behavioural act, a style, a relationship or a process. Thus, finding one specific definition of leadership is a very complex task as studies on the topic are wide and varied and there is no generally accepted definition (Bass, 1985b). A brief discussion of the different approaches to leadership will provide a basis for examining the concept of leadership in an organisation.

Generally, leadership involves influencing other individuals to act towards the attainment of a goal or goals. In the 1950's, renowned leadership theorist, Stogdill, captured what is considered an accurate definition of leadership: "...the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1974:11).

Various authors regard leadership as the behaviour of an individual when directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. Gerber, Nel and van Dyk (1996) for example define leadership as an interpersonal process through which a leader directs the activities of individuals or groups towards the purposeful pursuance of given objectives within a particular situation by means of communication. Rowden (2000) also define leadership as the behaviour of an individual when that person is directing and coordinating the activities of a group toward the accomplishment of a shared goal. Those who define leadership as an act include Bennis and Goldsmith (1994), who define leadership as what leaders do, such as acting with integrity and competence, interpreting reality, explaining the present and painting a picture of the future.

Some authors define leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Gardner (1990) defines leadership as the process of

influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. Vecchio (1997) also describes leadership as a process through which leaders influence the attitudes, behaviours and values of others towards organisational goals. This was supported by Jacques and Clement (1994) when they defined leadership as a process in which one person sets the purpose or direction for others and gets them to move along together with him/her in that direction with competence and commitment.

According to Nirenberg (2001), leadership is a social function necessary for the achievement of collective objectives. To him, leadership is not just a position in a hierarchy or a chain of commands, but involves actions of the leader. This approach to leadership sees leadership as a process of mutual interaction between leader and follower (Nirenberg, 2001). The process of leadership may be thought of as consisting of a number of different functions such as inspiring subordinates, forming and reaching collective goals, and preserving group cohesion. Each of these functions can be accomplished by many different leadership behaviours. Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person (or group) over other people (or groups) to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organisation (Yukl, 1989).

A more contemporary definition is provided by Kotter (1988), where he defined leadership as the process of moving a group (or groups) in the same direction through mostly non-coercive means. He further suggests that effective leadership is defined as leadership which produces movement in the long-term best interest of the group (or groups). Jago (1982) supported this when he defined leadership as the use of non-coercive and symbolic influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organised group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. The definition is consistent with other researchers such as Burns (1978) and, more recently, Bass (1990a) and Yammarino (1997). Bass has been in the forefront of approaching leadership in terms of styles. He has described three well-known styles of leadership: laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership. Transformational leaders encourage subordinates to adopt the organisational vision as their own, through inspiration, thus adopting a long-term perspective and focus on future needs (Bass, 1990b). Transformational leaders tend to have a holistic perspective of organisational factors. Transactional leaders, on the other hand, identify and clarify job tasks for their

subordinates and communicate how successful execution of those tasks will lead to receipt of desirable job rewards (Bass, 1990b). According to Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991), a transactional leader determines and defines goals for their subordinates and suggests how to execute tasks. They provide feedback and rewards on completed tasks. These leaders motivate subordinates to achieve expected levels of performance by helping them to recognise task responsibilities, identify goals and develop confidence about meeting desired performance levels (Bass, 1990b). They make subordinates understand how their needs and the rewards they desire are linked to goal achievement. Laissez-faire leaders abandon their responsibility leaving their subordinates to work relatively on their own and avoid making decisions (Bass, 1990b).

It is clear from the definitions above that leadership can be viewed in terms of multiple perspectives, and that it can be represented as existing as an act, behaviour or process. It is also clear that each of these perspectives alone does not give a full explanation of what leadership is. Leadership is complex and encompasses all these aspects at varying degrees depending on the situation. For the purpose of this research an integrative approach to leadership will be adopted. This study will focus on leadership as both an individual and group-directed measure of leader behaviour and style. The study will use measures that will question the subordinates about the leader's behaviour towards an individual subordinate or towards an entire group of subordinates.

2.3 LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT

There has been much debate about the differences between leadership and management. Some researchers have chosen to look at this either/or phenomenon by developing theoretical models around the dual concepts of leadership versus management (see Table 2.1). A review of these descriptions also reveals a relations-oriented versus task-oriented focus. For instance, Bennis and Nanus (1985) contrast a focus on people with a focus on systems and structures. Zaleznik (1977) differentiates between a concentration on what things mean to people versus concentrating on how things get done. Both Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Zaleznik (1992) suggest that managers, do things right, whereas leaders do the right thing. Zaleznik (1992) develops the view that the differences between leaders and

managers reflect different personality types and that some people are leaders by nature and some people are managers by nature.

Kotter (1990) contrasted motivating and inspiring versus controlling and problem solving. He described management as a process of setting and achieving the goals of the organisation through the functions of management: planning, organising, directing (or leading), and controlling. Leadership is essentially the process of building and maintaining a sense of vision, culture and interpersonal relationships, whereas management is the co-ordination, support and monitoring of organisational activities (Kotter, 1990).

Eicher (1998) supported inspiring others against directing operations. Further examination of these leadership and management distinctions highlights the freedom researchers use in interchanging terms. For instance, Bennis and Nanus's (1985) leadership behaviour of focus on people is similar to Kotter's (1990) motivating and inspiring, Zaleznik's (1977) focus on what events mean to people, and Eicher's (1998) inspiring others.

An examination of the management behaviours reveals an equal similarity with word or phrase exchanges. First, "relies on control" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) is similar to "emphasis on rationality and control" (Zaleznik, 1977). Second, "short-range view" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) is similar to "maintaining focus on present needs" (Eicher, 1998). Finally, "accepts the status quo" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) is similar to "tolerates mundane and practical work" (Zaleznik, 1977).

Some researchers present leadership and management as two distinct categories of behaviours and see no intermingling of those behaviours. They primarily describe leadership behaviours as being relations-oriented and management behaviours as being task-oriented (Bass, 1990b). Other researchers suggest that leadership and management represent a mixture of both task-oriented and relations-oriented behaviours, with leadership having some task-oriented behaviours and management having some relations-oriented behaviours.

Table 2.1: Leadership versus Management Descriptions

Source	Leadership Behaviours	Management Behaviours
<i>Eicher (1998)</i>	Guiding others and the organisation, personally developing others, promoting opportunities for growth, embracing uncertainty, communicating organisation direction, developing key relationships, inspiring others	Administering rules and policies, demonstrating and clarifying expectations, setting standards of performance, improving operations, maintaining focus on present needs, directing operations, developing the organisation, reinforcing performance
<i>Kotter (1990)</i>	Coping with change, setting a direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring	Coping with complexity, planning and budgeting, organising and staffing, controlling and problem solving
<i>Bennis and Nanus (1985)</i>	Innovative, original thinking, develops, focuses on people, inspires trust, long-range perspective, originates, challenging, does the right thing	Administers, copies, maintains, focuses on systems and structure, relies on control, short-range view, imitates, accepts status quo, does things right
<i>Zaleznik (1977)</i>	Adopts a personal and active attitude toward goals, is proactive, develops fresh ideas, explores new options, develops excitement in others, accepts high-levels of risk, seeks out opportunities, is concerned with ideas, relates to people in intuitive ways, focuses on what events mean to people, attracts strong feelings of identity, is able to intensify individual motivation	Adopts an impersonal/passive attitude toward goals, reactive, emphasis on rationality and control, focuses on strategies and decision making, planning, rewarding, punishments, emphasis on acceptable compromises, limits choices, operates using a survival instinct, tolerates mundane and practical work, relates to people according to the other person's role, focuses on how things get done, communicates to subordinates indirectly, uses inconclusive signals when communicating

Gerber and colleagues (1996) identified the main differences between leadership and management by demonstrating that a manager is a person who exercises the daily management functions of planning, leading, organising and controlling as a result of a formal position of authority held in the organisation. A leader on the other hand, is any person capable of persuading other people (followers) to strive for certain goals (formal or informal), irrespective of his or her position (Robbins, 1996).

Various authors such as Zaleznik (1992) and Vecchio (1997) indicate that a leader can be a manager, but a manager is not necessarily a leader. The leader of a work group may emerge informally as the choice of the group (Vecchio, 1997). If a manager is able to influence people to achieve the goals of the organisation, without using his or her formal authority to do so, then the manager is demonstrating leadership. Management deals more with carrying out the organisation's goals and maintaining equilibrium. However, leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation, and influence.

The difference between leadership and management is that followers willingly follow leaders because they want to, not because they have to (Avolio, et al., 1991). Leaders may not possess the formal power to reward or sanction performance (Kotter, 1988). He argues that followers give the leaders power by complying with what they request. On the other hand, managers may have to rely on formal authority to get employees to accomplish goals (Zaleznik, 1992). Leadership is about having vision and articulating it, ordering priorities, getting others to go with you, constantly reviewing what you are doing and holding onto things that you value (Kotter, 1990) whereas management is about the functions, procedures and systems by which you realise the vision (Kotter, 1990).

2.4 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leadership has been accompanied throughout time by numerous theories that have been categorised into several historically distinct approaches that focus either on traits, behaviours, situational contingencies and transformational leadership. Theories of leadership attempt to explain factors involved either in the development of leadership, or in the nature of leadership and its consequences (Bass, 1990a). These theories attempt to simulate reality

and thereby show an interrelationship of the various factors that are perceived to be involved in the leadership process which takes place between leaders and followers.

In order to overcome the complexity inherent in leadership theories, Schilbach (1983) undertook an extensive leadership study and discussed a framework of basic approaches to leadership (in Gerber, et al., 1996). Robbins (1996) indicated that there are three broad approaches to leadership as well as a move to new approaches as shown in Figure 2.1. This diagram in Figure 2.1 is used as a basis for understanding the evolution of the concept of leadership and to demonstrate the move to new approaches in leadership theory. This section will review each approach.

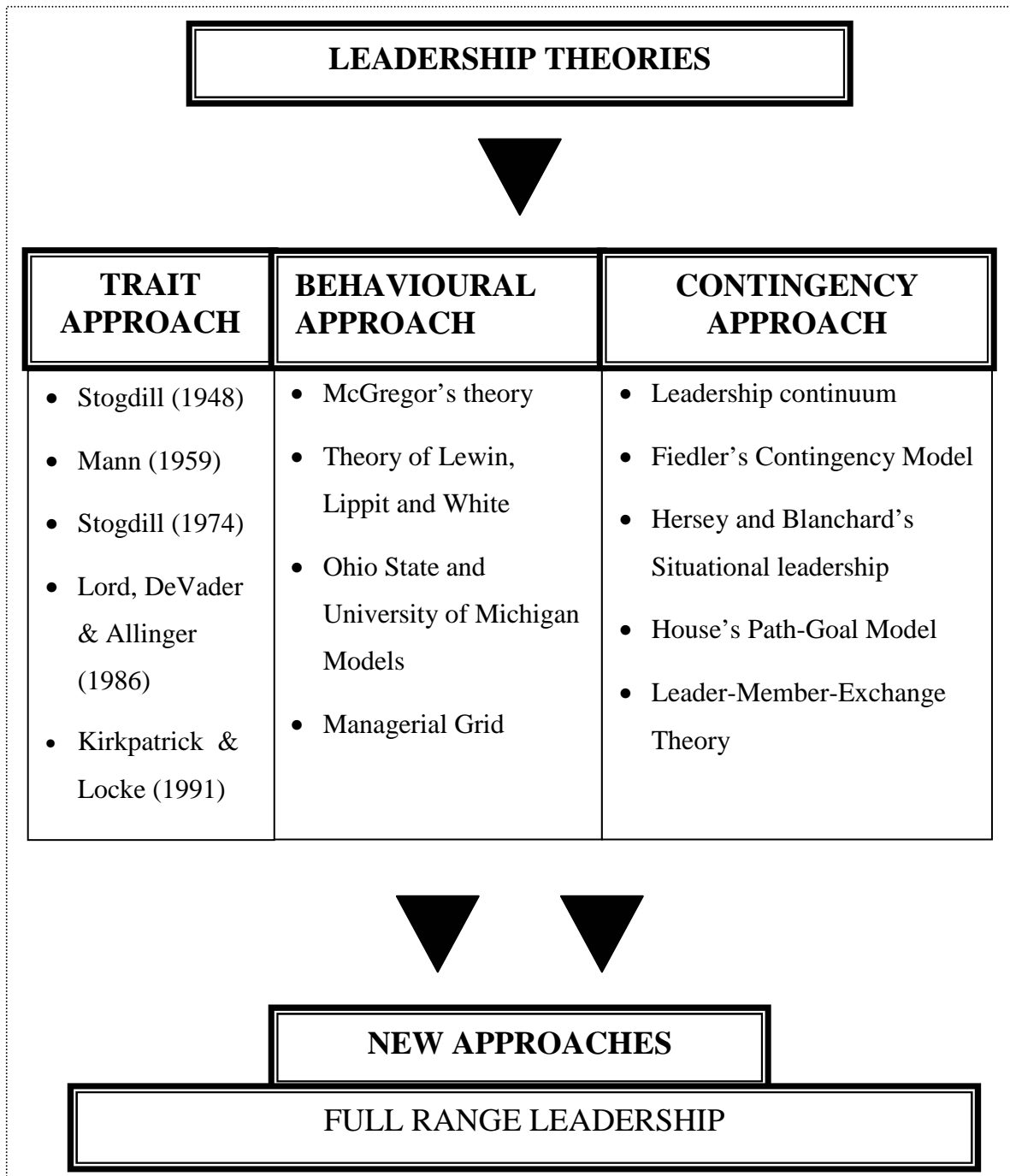


Figure 2.1: The Basic Leadership Approaches

Note: Adapted from Amos and Ristow (1999). Small Business Management Series Human Resources Management, pp 134.

2.4.1 Trait approach

In a comprehensive review of leadership theories (Stogdill, 1974), several different categories were identified that capture the essence of the study of leadership in the twentieth century. The first trend correlates leadership with the attributes of great leaders. Leadership was attributed to the supposedly innate qualities with which a person is born (Bernard, 1926). It was believed that if the traits that differentiated leaders from followers could be identified, successful leaders could be quickly assessed and put into positions of leadership. Researchers examined personality, physical and mental characteristics. The studies were based on the idea that leaders were born, not made, and the key to success was simply in identifying those people who were born to be great leaders. Though much research was done to identify the traits, researchers were unable to find traits that were consistently associated with great leadership.

These traits differentiate leaders from followers. Researchers, such as Bernard (1926) and Stogdill (1974), have investigated the role of traits in leadership behaviour. The main contribution of this approach was to provide evidence that certain characteristics intrinsic in individuals could result in effective leadership. This was essentially the first systematic attempt at a conceptual understanding of leadership. The trait approach tried to explain what made certain people great business, social, political and military leaders. The theory suggested that certain people were born with social traits that made them great leaders. Because the theory holds that leaders and non-leaders are differentiated by a universal set of traits, researchers were challenged to identify the definitive traits of leaders (Bass, 1990a).

Table 2.2 shows a summary of the traits and characteristics that were identified by researchers from the trait approach according to Northouse (2001). This shows how difficult it is to select certain traits as definitive leadership traits.

This approach was heavily criticised, because it was not possible to define general leadership traits which fitted the situation. Stogdill (1948) suggested that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations. Tosi, Rizzo and Carroll (1986) also suggested that the trait theory fails to clarify the relative importance of traits. Further, the approach is too narrow in that it focuses exclusively on the leader and overlooks

the need of the follower (Robbins, 1996). Stogdill (1974) also came to the conclusion that personality, behaviour and situation had to be included to explain the emergence of leadership. A further implication of the trait approach is that it assumes that leadership is basically inborn, meaning that selection would be the key to effective leadership in an organisation, rather than other factors such as training (Robbins, 1996).

Table 2.2. Studies of leadership traits and characteristics (Northouse, 2001:18)

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, De vader and Allinger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Responsibility	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Initiative	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Persistence	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive ability
Self-confidence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task knowledge
Sociability		Cooperativeness		
		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Several major studies questioned the basic premise of a unique set of traits that defines leadership, and shifted attention to organisational impact and the followers of a leader. Researchers began to study actions that occur between leaders and the context of work, instead of focusing on a leader’s traits (Riggio, Ciulla & Sorenson, 2003).

2.4.2 Behavioural approach

The next major shift in research into leadership dealt with examining the types of behaviours leaders exhibited in an effort to assess what makes effective leaders effective. This focus on people’s actions was quite different from the trait approach, which centered on a person’s

physical and personality characteristics. This approach looked at leadership behaviours in an attempt to determine what successful leaders do, not how they look to others (Halpin & Winer, 1957). Researchers studying the behaviour approach, also referred to as the style approach, determined that leadership is composed essentially of two kinds of behaviours: task behaviours and relationship behaviours (Northouse, 2001). The behaviour approach attempted to explain how these two types of behaviours interface in a manner that allowed a leader to influence a group to reach a goal.

The approach emphasises behaviour of the leader (Fleishman & Hunt, 1973). Ivancevich and Matteson (1993) describe behavioural models of leadership, as those that focus on differences in the actions of effective and ineffective leaders. Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2004) stated that these models are based on what effective and ineffective leaders actually do, how they delegate tasks to subordinates, where and when they communicate to others and how they perform their roles. Bass (1990a) shows how the leader's behaviour is a cue to evoke the subordinates' task behaviour. The leader's behaviour will determine how well tasks are accomplished by followers.

The main behavioural models are McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (1960), the Ohio State and University of Michigan Models (in Hellriegel et al., 2004) and the Managerial Grid Model of Blake and Mouton (1964). These will be explained below:

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y model proposed two distinct theories of leadership behaviours: one negative labelled theory X and the other positive labelled theory Y. His theories contend that leadership behaviours are based on an assumption about employees. His Theory X assumption includes the belief that employees dislike work and will avoid it if possible. According to McGregor (1960), here managerial behaviours include coercing employees, controlling their tasks and activities, and directing their behaviours. McGregor's (1960) Theory Y assumption includes the belief that employees can view work as a positive experience given the right conditions. Here, managerial behaviours include providing encouragement, positive reinforcement and rewards.

The Ohio State and University of Michigan leadership studies identified two primary, independent factors which are consideration of structure (employee-oriented leadership) and initiation of structure (production-oriented leadership). The researchers focused on the behaviours that leaders enacted and how they treated followers. The impact of this approach dealt with the broadening of management's focus to include people-oriented as well as task-oriented activities.

Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964) developed the managerial grid model and they identified a two-factor model of leadership behaviour similar to that found at Ohio State and University of Michigan Models. Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964) called these factors "concern for people" and "concern for output". They later added flexibility as a third variable. According to Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964), leaders can only exhibit behaviours that fall into two primary categories (task-oriented or people-oriented). Depending on which category is most frequently shown, a leader could be placed along each of the two categories.

The behavioural approach looks at what effective and ineffective leaders actually do; how they delegate tasks to subordinates, where and when they communicate to others and how they perform their roles. Behavioural models made a great contribution to the understandings of leadership, as the focus shifted from who leaders are (traits) to what leaders do (behaviours). This approach demonstrated that unlike traits, behaviours can be seen and learned and also relate directly to the function being performed. This has important implications for management training in that effective behaviour, unlike traits, can be learnt. If training works, we could have an infinite supply of leaders (Robbins, 1996).

However, leadership behaviours that are appropriate in one situation aren't necessarily appropriate in another. Because the behavioural models failed to uncover a leadership style that were consistently appropriate to all situations, other leadership models were devised (Hellriegel, et al., 2004). Behaviour must, to some extent, be dictated to by the specific circumstances in which the leader operates (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993). The next step in the evolution of knowledge about leadership was the creation of contingency models.

2.4.3 Contingency Approach

Contingency theory is a leader match theory that explains the match of leaders to appropriate situations. The contingency approach suggests that no single leadership style, specific leadership functions or particular leadership qualities are recommended as the best under all circumstances (Gerber, et al., 1996). The contingency approach represents a shift in leadership research from focusing on the leader to looking at the leader in conjunction with the situation in which the leader works (Fiedler, 1978). It suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits with the context. To understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand situations in which they lead. Effective leadership occurs when the leader accurately diagnoses the development level of the subordinates in a task situation and then uses a leadership style that matches the situation (Blanchard, Zigarmi & Nelson, 1993). Leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between a leader's behaviour and the characteristics of subordinates and the subordinates' task (House, 1977).

The main contingency models are the Leadership Continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt, Fiedler's Contingency Model, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model and House's Path-Goal Model and the Leader-Member Exchange theory (Bass, 1990a). These will be discussed below:

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory posited that effective group performance was dependent upon the appropriate match of the leader's personality and the situation. Personality orientation of the leader is centered on a task or interpersonal style. Hellriegel and colleagues (2004) indicated that leadership depends on matching a leader's style to a situation's demand. Situational factors that influence leader effectiveness included leader-member relations, degree of task structure, and power-position of the leader. Leader-member relations referred to the quality of the relationship between the leader and member (Fiedler, 1967). The leader's influence over the members was enhanced through a strong relationship.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory proposed that leaders should vary their behaviours according to the member's maturity and they classified

leader behaviours along two dimensions: directive behaviour (similar to initiating-structure and production-centred) and supportive behaviour (similar to consideration-structure and employee-centred). Hersey and Blanchard (1977) also claimed that the levels of directive and supportive leader behaviour should be based on the level of readiness of the followers.

Directive behaviour, described one-way directional communication from the leader to the member. Supportive behaviour, described bidirectional communication from the leader when providing social-emotional support for the member. Member maturity or readiness referred to the ability and willingness of members to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour in relation to a specific task.

These behaviours are labeled as delegating, participating, selling, and telling. As an employee becomes mature (i.e. grows in capacity, ability, education, experience, motivation, self-esteem, confidence), the need for socio-emotional support increases, while the need for structure declines. Beyond a certain level of maturity, the need for both types of orientation decreases. Thus, as the employee matures, directing and supporting are replaced with negotiating and participating, and all are eventually terminated or applied only on an as needed basis.

The path-goal theory of leadership (House, 1971) postulated that the eventual performance and satisfaction of group members was highly influenced by the appropriateness of leader behaviours in relation to member's needs and desires as well as the characteristics of the task. Therefore, the function of the leader was to provide coaching, guidance and personal support to members if necessary. The path-goal theory proposed that group members preferred a highly structured regime when presented with ambiguous, varied and interdependent tasks.

Initiating structure and close supervision from the leader helped clarify the path-goal relationship and increased the coordination, satisfaction and performance of the group members. Should the members not be able to make valid judgments about situational requirements because of their characteristics, the leader must take action and decide for the members.

The leader-member exchange theory addresses leadership as a process centered in the interaction between leaders and followers. Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX) was developed by Danserau, Cashman and Hager (1975) as a response to Average Leadership Style (ALS), which assumed that leaders maintain similar relationships with all of their employees. They highlighted the ways leaders differentiate between their subordinates by creating in-groups and out-groups. Subordinates become in-group members based on how well they get along with the leader and whether they are willing to expand their roles and responsibilities (Danserau, Cashman & Hager, 1975). In-group members receive extra opportunities and rewards, while out-group members receive only standard benefits. Thus, in-group members have high quality exchanges characterised by “mutual trust, respect, and obligation” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), whereas out-group members have low quality exchanges that have less trust, respect, and obligation.

The weakness of the contingency approach is that it failed to provide some universal principles of leadership (Bass, 1990a). The theory has not adequately explained the link between styles and situation (Rice, 1978). Principles such as integrity are not governed by any particular situation (Robbins, 1996). The basic approaches also do not pay enough attention to the needs of the follower and this is contrary to literature on motivational theories (Tosi et al, 1986). The contingency approach also assumes that leaders are merely shaped by their situation, when it might be possible that truly effective leaders can shape situations around them (Kotter, 1990). Yukl (2002) also stated that although situational leadership theories provide insights into reasons for effective leadership, conceptual weaknesses limit the approach’s usefulness. Thus, it is difficult to derive specific testable propositions from the approach, with the approach not permitting strong inferences about the direction of causality.

Each of these approaches (behavioural and contingency) has its advocates and each attempts to identify the leader behaviours most appropriate for a variety of different situations (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993). The main contribution of the contingency was, therefore, to demonstrate the importance of situational factors in leadership, resulting in more systematic leadership research.

2.4.4 New Approaches

As can be seen from the previous sections, the trait, behavioural and contingency approaches do not agree on how leaders can best influence followers. Furthermore, these basic approaches lack rigour, generality and the opportunity to employ standard measurements (Bass, 1990a). These approaches had not been rigidly tested in practice and they were too specific either in defining leadership in terms of traits, behaviours or situations. A need existed for leadership principles that included the needs of followers. These principles could then be adapted to specific situations, thus not ignoring the contingency approach.

Until recently, most of the discussion on leadership has addressed transactional leadership. These leaders motivate subordinates to achieve expected levels of performance by helping them to recognise task responsibilities, identify goals, develop confidence about meeting desired performance levels and understand how their needs and the rewards they desire are linked to goal achievement (Bass, 1990b). The leadership induces acceptable behaviour and disciplines unacceptable behaviour. Bass (1990a) noted that the leadership research over the years has proved that loyalty is more powerful than tangible inducements. This was supported by Ulrich (2002) when he stated that employees' commitment is a valuable and intangible asset which can produce tangible results. Transformational leaders understand and adapt to higher order needs (self-actualisation and esteem needs) and motives of the followers.

Globally, the environment has become more competitive and dynamic, so various leaders throughout the world have realised the need to make changes in their way of operating if their organisations are to survive (Kotter, 1990). Thus, many new leadership styles have taken place in recent years. Renowned leadership theorists such as Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991), Bass (1990a), Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Burns (1978) to name but a few, have completed extensive leadership research. As a result a new theory, termed transformational leadership, has been identified as the most appropriate style of leadership in contemporary organisations.

The transformational leadership approach attempts to address the inherent limitations in previous leadership theories by providing a holistic view of leadership. Transformational

leadership overcomes the inherent lack of generality in previous leadership theories. This is an encompassing approach that can be used to describe a wide range of leadership processes, from specific intentions to influence followers, on a one-to-one level, to a broad attempt to influence organisations and even entire cultures. Followers and leaders are inextricably bound together in the transformation process (Bass & Avolio, 1990b). It builds on the previous leadership approaches as contemporary organisations seek a universal approach in their leadership, as they compete more and more in a global market, which is not constrained by culture or political boundaries.

Figure 2.2 demonstrates that transformational leadership theory integrates the trait, behavioural and situational approaches. This transformational leadership theory recognises that there are certain traits inherent in leaders and followers and these can be observed, learnt and developed. Based on unique personality characteristics, the leader acts or behaves in certain ways to influence the followers to achieve objectives. The followers respond to the leader's trait-based behaviour in either a positive or negative way. The leader-follower interaction is influenced by various situations. Central to transformational leadership is the fact that the behaviour exhibited by the leader focuses not only on tangible inducements, but more on developing the follower to transcend their own self interest for the good of the group (Bass, 1990a).

Figure 2.2 shows that integrating trait, behavioural and situational approaches results in a set of universal leadership principles. These are principles that are not constrained by culture or political boundaries. Transformational leaders are recognized as change agents who are good role models. They create and articulate a clear vision for the organisation; empower followers to achieve higher standards; act in ways that make others want to trust them; and give meaning to organisational life (Bass & Avolio, 1990b).

It should also be specifically noted that traits, behaviours and, particularly, needs of the follower, influence the leadership process more than a transaction between the leader and the follower. The transformational leadership approach is sometimes referred to as the full-range leadership approach as it is seen to develop leaders and followers to heightened levels of potential. This point will be further elaborated on in section 2.5.

The theorists mentioned earlier in this section (sections 2.4.1, 2.4.2 and 2.4.3), contend that these principles, if applied, should result in effective behaviour and effective organisations. In order to address the inherent limitations in previous leadership theories a holistic approach of leadership is needed (Amos & Ristow, 1999).

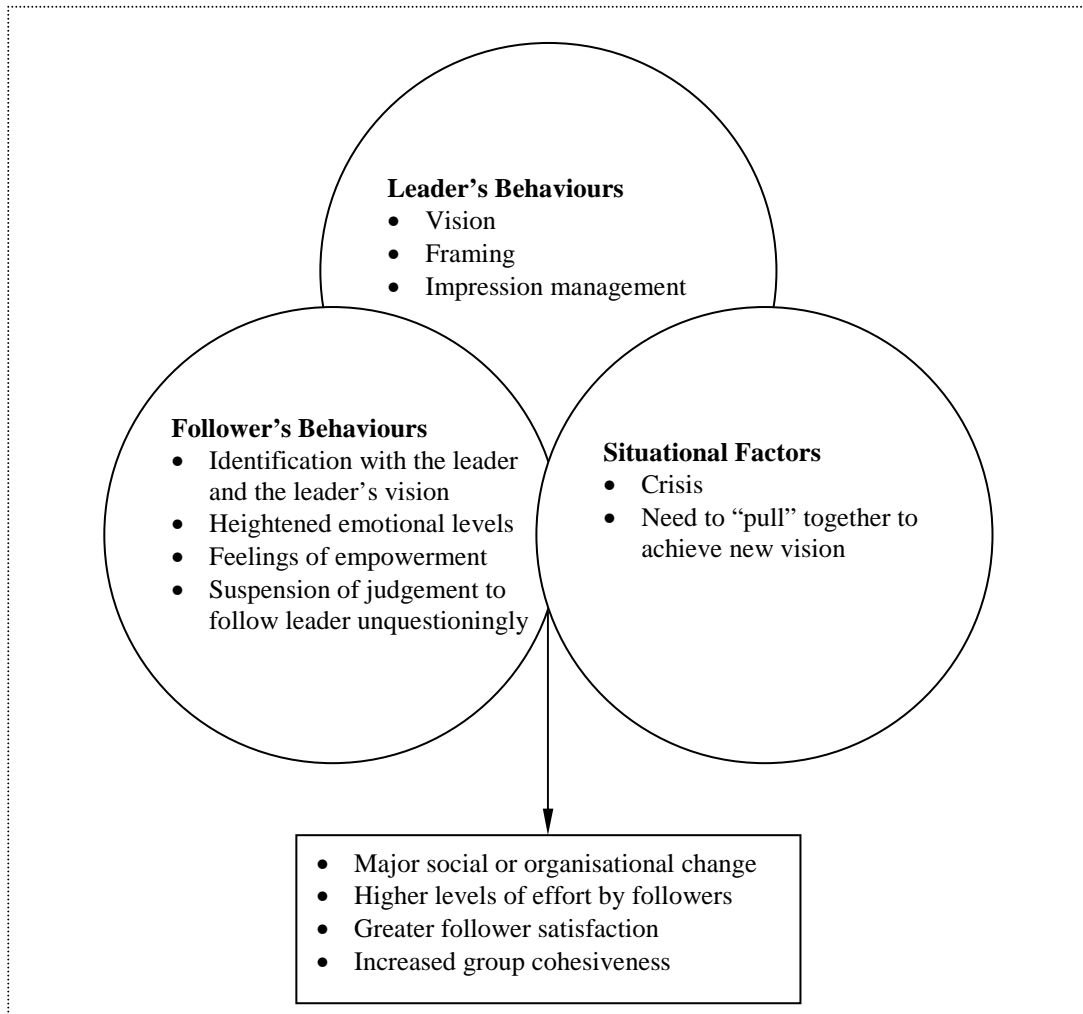


Figure 2.2: Transformational Leadership model (Hellriegel et al, 2004).

2.5 FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP APPROACH

The Full Range Leadership (FRL) approach as developed by Bass and Avolio (1994; 1997) encompasses a range of leader behaviours. This model, as depicted in Figure 2.3, describes leaders as utilising a wide range of the different forms of leader behaviours. The range of behaviours starts with transformational leader behaviours to transactional leader behaviours reaching to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behaviour (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These leadership styles have been described to have a direct effect on individual and organisational level outcomes (Bass, 1990a; Yukl & van Fleet, 1992).

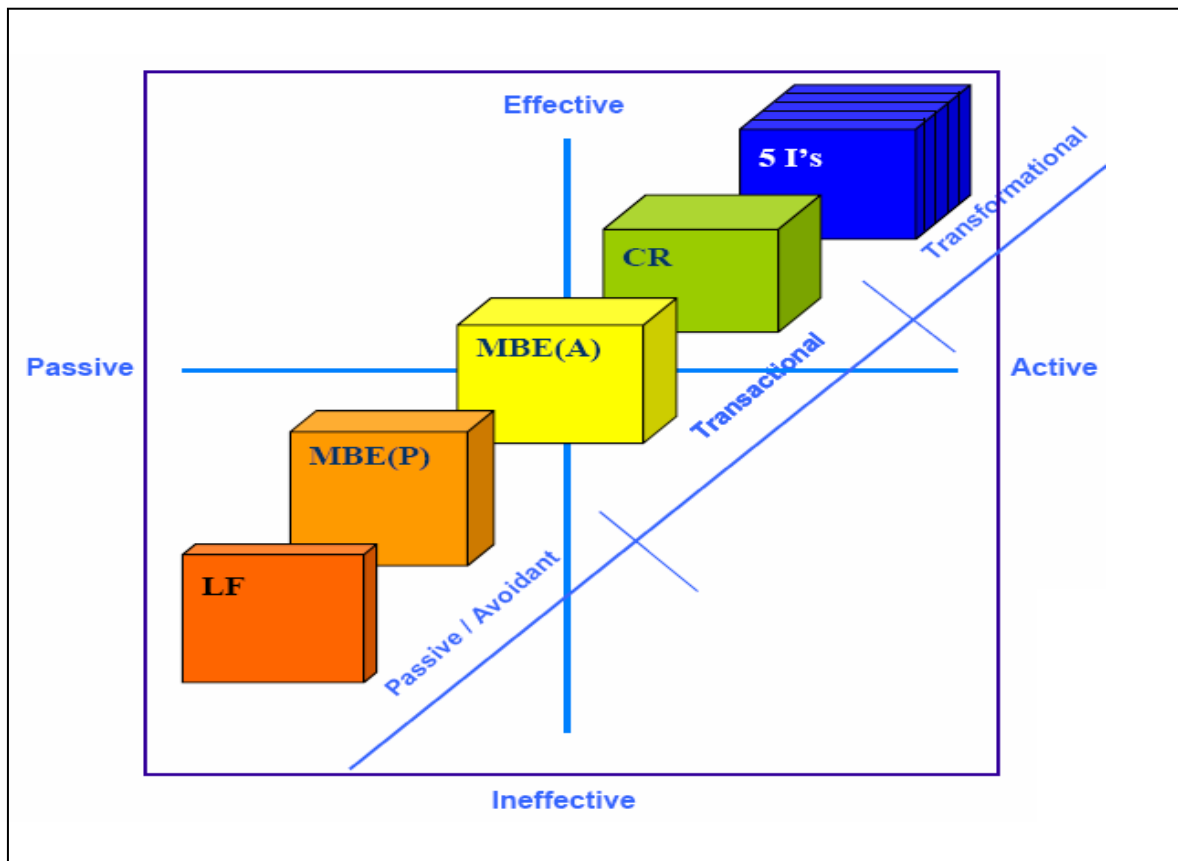


Figure 2.3 A Model of the Full Range Leadership Development Theory (Bass and Avolio, 1994: 5)

Bass (1985a) based his descriptions of transformational and transactional leaders on Burns's (1978) ideas. Burns (1978) proposed that one could differentiate ordinary from extraordinary leadership. He described transactional leaders as those leaders who influence

compliance by expected rewards. Transactional leadership is an exchange relationship that involves the reward of effort, productivity and loyalty. Transformational leaders emphasise higher motive development and arouse followers' motivation and positive emotions by means of creating and representing an inspiring vision of the future (Bass, 1997). Transformational leaders are those who motivate their followers to perform beyond expectation by raising the follower's confidence levels and providing support for developing to higher levels. Followers feel a greater degree of respect and trust for the leader. The "backbone" of this theory is that followers are more motivated to enhance their performance by transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990b).

The work of Bass and colleagues (Bass & Avolio, 1990a) expanded Burns's factors of leadership to include a third leadership style called laissez-faire leadership style. Bass (1990a) described the laissez-faire leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates considerable freedom, to the point of abdicating his/her responsibilities. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

2.5.1 Transformational leadership style

According to Burns (1978) transformational leaders are to ensure that followers are consciously aware of the importance of sharing organisational goals and values. They also find ways to ensure that followers know how to achieve these goals. Burns (1978) further states that transformational leaders motivate their followers to go beyond their own self-interests and give effort on behalf of the organisation by appealing to the higher order needs of followers.

Yukl (1989) defined transformational leadership as the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organisational members and building commitment for the organisational mission and objectives. Transformational leaders are said to appeal to higher ideals and moral values of followers, heighten their expectations and spur them to greater effort and performance on behalf of the organisation (Bass, 1990a; 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1990b). Bass and Avolio (1990b) suggest that transformational leaders inspire followers with

a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort, thus motivating followers to achieve more than they thought they would achieve.

The relationship between a transformational leader and followers is characterised by pride and respect (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). The employees often develop a high level of trust and confidence in such a leader. The employees are proud to identify themselves with the leader and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them.

Transformational leaders encourage problem solving in followers rather than constantly providing solutions and directions and a greater pool of knowledge (Buhler, 1995). Bass and Avolio (1994) suggest that a consequence of this behaviour is that followers develop the capacity to solve future problems which might be unforeseen by the leader. Dubinsky, Francis Yammarino, Jolson and William (1995) also suggest that leaders who are intellectually stimulating often possess a high level of risk-taking because of their capability to trust the abilities of their followers. Individuals who work for transformational leaders may willingly expand their job descriptions as they develop a greater conception of the organisation as a whole (Avolio, et al., 1991).

Bass and colleagues (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1995; 1999; Bass, 1985a; 1997) have identified five factors which represent behavioural components of transformational leadership: 1) idealised influence (attributes); 2) idealised influence (behaviour); 3) inspirational motivation; 4) intellectual stimulation and 5) individualised consideration. Idealised influence attributes occur when followers identify with and emulate those leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision. Idealised influence behaviour refers to leader behaviour which results in followers identifying with leaders and wanting to emulate them. Leaders demonstrating idealised influence or charisma instil pride in their subordinates and command respect (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Employees have a high level of trust and confidence in such leaders, tend to adopt their vision, seek to identify with them and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. A charismatic leader does not derive authority from rules, position or tradition, but from the followers' faith and trust. Idealised influence is coupled with an emotional attachment of the followers to identify with the leader.

Inspirational motivation implies that leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' tasks. Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991) postulate that antecedents, such as past personal accomplishments, the development of communication skills and the role modeling of other leaders, create the potential to inspire others. This potential is realised in part by the interplay with individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation when the person is in a leadership role. Such behaviour strengthens the leader's inspirational appeal, because it makes followers feel valued, self-confident and assured that their leader can overcome obstacles and help the group to meet new challenges and opportunities. A leader's level of inspirational motivation is further strengthened, if a vision, of where the group is heading, is shared by co-workers. As other means of generating excitement and confidence, inspirational leaders often set an example of hard work, remain optimistic in times of crises and search to reduce an employee's duties and workloads by using creative work methods.

Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways. Intellectual stimulation also occurs when the leader prompts the followers to provide alternative solutions to the problems and challenges. Avolio and his colleagues (1991) argue that the most important benefit of transformational leadership is that followers do not resist self-development and frequently demonstrate an enhanced commitment to their job, co-workers and the organisation.

Individual consideration occurs when leaders relate to followers on a one-to-one basis in order to elevate goals and develop skills. Leaders who display individual consideration treat each employee as an individual and are attentive to the unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual (Bass, 1985a). Such leaders listen to and share an individual's concerns while simultaneously helping to build the individual's confidence. They also consider the individual's developmental and growth needs. These leaders remove 'roadblocks' in the system, which inhibit both the development of the followers and their achieving optimum performance. They are able to diagnose and evaluate the needs of each follower and then elevate them as required for developing each follower to his optimum potential.

Leaders who demonstrate individual consideration often coach, mentor and counsel their subordinates. Leaders manifesting inspirational motivation articulate high expectation to subordinates (Bass, 1985a). They communicate important issues very simply and use various symbols to focus their efforts. They also demonstrate self-determination and commitment to attaining objectives and present an optimistic and achievable view of the future.

A transformational leader provides intellectual stimulation to employees by encouraging them to try out new approaches in solving problems (Bass, 1985a). They challenge the status quo and encourage employees to explore new ways of achieving organisational goals and objectives. Subordinates under such leadership are not hesitant to offer their ideas, become critical in their problem solving and tend to have enhanced thought processes. An intellectually stimulating leader helps people to think about 'old' problems in new ways and to use reasoning and evidence to solve problems (Bass, 1985a; 1985b). Intellectual stimulation is also helpful when the leader is attempting to maintain excitement and a high level of motivation among an educated workforce that prefers to have their opinions at least considered by the leader.

Figure 2.4 demonstrates how the transformational leader motivates followers to work for transcendental goals instead of short-term interest. The leader is able to expand the follower's portfolio of needs. As a result, the follower is not only concerned with the basic needs (such as physiological, safety (security) and social needs) according to Maslow's Hierarchy, but is also concerned with higher order needs such as esteem and self-actualisation. The leader builds confidence in the followers through employing the five components of the transformational leadership style, which along with the increased portfolio of needs, changes the culture of the organisation.

As opposed to the purely transactional approach, followers now have a heightened view of the probability of success and value the designated outcomes to a greater extent. The followers' heightened motivation to achieve the designated outcomes leads to performance which is often beyond expectations, as followers exhibit what Bass (1985a; 1990b) calls extra effort.

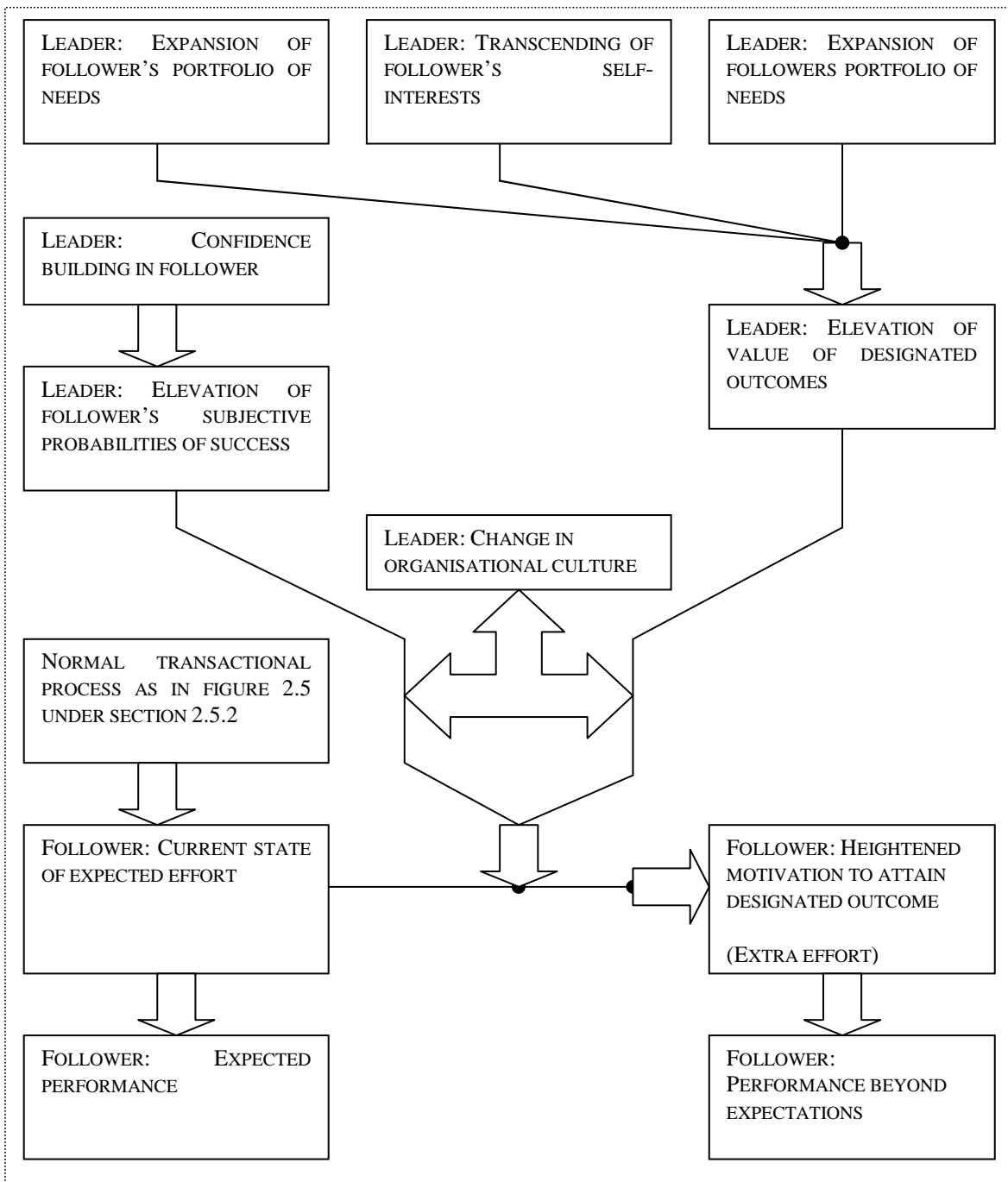


Figure 2.4: Transformational leadership process (Bass, 1985a)

2.5.2 Transactional leadership style

Bass (1985b; 1990a; 1990b; 1999) referred to transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leader and follower. Transactional leadership theory is grounded in the social learning and social exchange theories, which recognise the reciprocal nature of leadership (Deluga, 1990). It is based on the realisation that leadership does not necessarily reside in the person or situation, but resides in the social interaction between the leader and the follower (Van Seters & Fields, 1989).

Bass (1985a) and Bass and Avolio (1997) described transactional leadership in terms of two characteristics: the use of contingent rewards and management by exception. They described contingent reward as the reward that the leader will bestow on the subordinate once the latter has achieved goals that were agreed to. Contingent reward is therefore the exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-on objectives. By making and fulfilling promises of recognition, pay increases and advancement for employees who perform well, the transactional leader is able to get things done. Bass (1985a) therefore argues that by providing contingent rewards, a transactional leader might inspire a reasonable degree of involvement, loyalty, commitment and performance from subordinates.

Transactional leaders may also rely on active management by exception which occurs when the leader monitors followers to ensure mistakes are not made, but otherwise, allows the status quo to exist without being addressed (Bass & Avolio, 1995). In passive management by exception, the leader intervenes only when things go wrong. In general, one can conclude that transactional leadership is an exchange relationship that involves the reward of effort, productivity and loyalty.

As can be seen in Figure 2.5, the leader helps the follower to identify what needs to be done to accomplish the desired results. The leader, however, only takes the follower's basic needs into account. Therefore, as Bass (1985a) contends, transactional leadership uses satisfaction of lower order needs as the primary basis for motivation. The focus in transactional leadership is on role clarification. The leader helps the follower in understanding exactly what needs to be done in order to meet the organisation's objectives and goals. A successful result of transactional leadership would be an expected outcome.

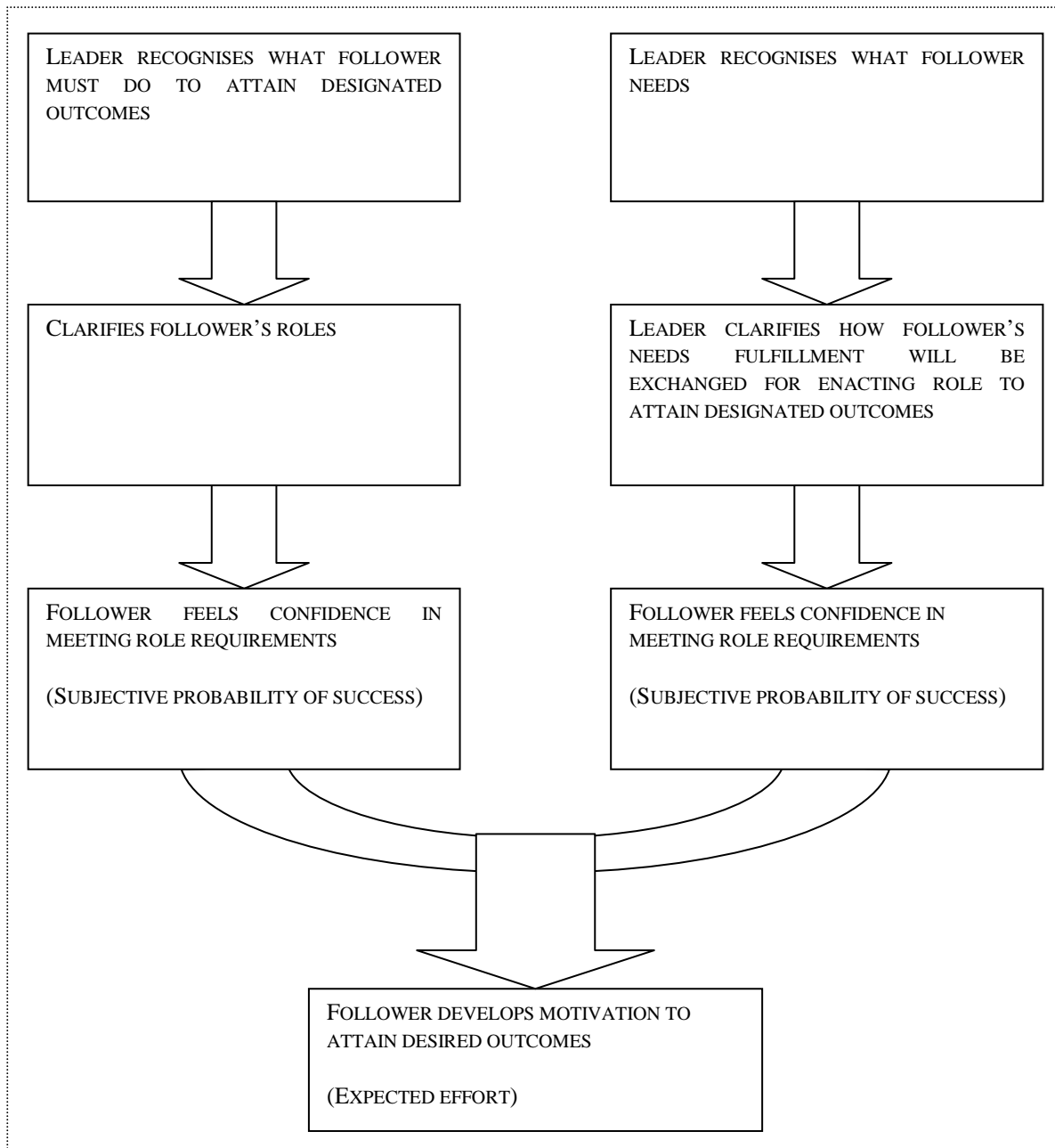


Figure 2.5 Transactional leadership process (Bass, 1985a)

2.5.3 Laissez-Faire leadership style.

Both the transformational and transactional leaders are described as leaders who actively intervene and try to prevent problems, although they use different approaches. When researching these two active forms of leadership, one finds that they are often contrasted with the third style of leadership, called laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1990a). Deluga

(1990) describes the laissez-faire leader as an extreme passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates' considerable freedom, to the point of abdicating his/her responsibilities. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

Laissez-faire style of leadership is also referred to as management-by-exception (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Management-by-exception characterises how leaders monitor negative subordinates' behaviour and exert corrective action only when subordinates fail to meet objectives. Leaders who manage by exception intervene only when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks are not met. It can therefore be concluded that by 'laissez-faire', it is meant that the leader is not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties.

2.5.4 Integrating transformational and transactional leadership styles.

In his reformulation of transformational leadership, Bass extended Burn's concept and sees it as a separate dimension to that of transactional leadership (Bass, 1985a; 1998; 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Hater and Bass (1988) point out that contrasting transactional and transformational leadership does not imply that the models are unrelated. Bass (1985a) viewed the transformational/transactional leadership paradigm as being comprised of complementary rather than polar constructs, with transformational leadership building on transactional leadership, but not vice versa. As mentioned previously Bass (1985a) integrated the transformational and transactional styles by recognising that both styles may be linked to the achievement of desired goals and objectives. This view proposes that the two styles are complementary in the sense that the transformational leadership style is ineffective in the total absence of a transactional relationship between leader and subordinate (Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987).

Transformational leadership also has been linked to various criteria of effectiveness. In one study, Guzzo, Yost, Campbell and Shea (1993) suggested transactional and transformational leadership styles can positively affect group potency and effectiveness. Transformational leadership, when compared to transactional and laissez-faire leaders has also been shown to have higher performing work groups as well as subordinates who reported greater

satisfaction and members who exerted extra effort to complete the task (Bass, 1985a). In addition, transformational leadership is significantly related to other relevant outcome variables such as follower perceptions of role clarity, mission clarity, and openness of communication (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994).

Any particular leader might embody both forms of leadership, as these comprise independent behaviours. A leader may employ both styles at different times or in differing amounts at the same time. Considerable recent research provides evidence - garnered by both its main proponents and more independent researchers – that shows transformational leadership as eliciting extra effort and performance from followers, over and above that expected in an exchange relationship with a purely transactional leader (Bass, 1985a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a; House & Shamir, 1993).

2.5.5 Limitation of transformational leadership

A major drawback of transformational leadership is that it has a potential to be abused as it involves changing people's values and moving them to a new vision. Both styles of leadership, transformational and transactional, have strong philosophical and ethical components. Bass (1985a) acknowledged that transformational leaders can wear "white hats or black hats". In addition, others have argued that both transformational and charismatic leaders can be self-centered and manipulative in the means they use to achieve their goals (Bass & Steidlmeier, 2003).

It has been suggested that transformational leadership lends itself to amoral puffery, since it encourages followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the organisation. The irrational engagement of the followers through emotions in pursuit of self-interest is contrary to the followers' best interests (Stevens, D'Intino & Victor, 1995). Bass and Steidlmeier (2003) distinguished between pseudo-transformational leaders, who are self-interested and lack moral virtue, and "authentic" transformational leaders, who are more clearly "moral" leaders.

A second criticism is that transformational leadership is elitist and antidemocratic (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Related to this criticism is that transformational leadership suffers

from a “heroic leadership” bias (Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership stresses that it is the leader who moves followers to do exceptional things. By focusing primarily on the leader, researchers have failed to give attention to shared leadership or reciprocal influence. Followers can also influence leaders just as leaders can influence followers. More attention needs to be directed at how leaders can encourage followers to challenge the leader’s vision and share in the leadership process.

2.6 CONCLUSIONS

A broad overview of leadership has now been presented in this chapter. Various authors agree that leadership is a critical factor in the success or failure of an organisation; excellent organisations begin with excellent leadership and successful organisations reflect their leadership (Bass, 1994; 1997).

Leadership was defined and a comparison between management and leadership was presented. The three leadership theories that have been developed over time are trait theories, behavioural approaches and situational/contingency approaches. Each of these approaches describes different dimensions of leadership and their effects on the relationship between leaders and their followers. Furthermore, transactional and transformational leadership were discussed. The Full Range Leadership Development Model, developed by Bass and Avolio (1994), provides the development of transformational leadership from transactional leadership. This was supported by Pruijn and Boucher (1994) when they stated that transformational leadership is an extension of transactional leadership. According to them a leader may display various degrees of transactional or transformational leadership style depending on the situation. This model provides a theoretical framework for the purpose of this research.

The literature has shown that transactional and transformational can get results from subordinates that are beyond expectations (Bass, 1997). Leaders can contribute to an employee’s desire to remain committed to the organisation by inducing employee’s trust and confidence in them. Bass (1990a) noted that the leadership research over the years has proved that loyalty is more powerful than tangible inducements. Price (1997) further suggests that employees are far more likely to be committed to the organisation, if they have

confidence in their leader. The literature has recognised the influence of leadership style on employee commitment. It is therefore appropriate at this stage that the next chapter will discuss the second variable within the research, organisational commitment.

CHAPTER THREE: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter defines the conceptualisation of organisational commitment to be used in this study by exploring the evolution of the conceptualisation of commitment over the past quarter century. Meyer and Allen's (1991) multi-dimensional approach to organisational commitment is discussed in detail. The predictors of how an individual develops commitment to the organisation is also explained. The influence of personal characteristics on organisational commitment has been extensively studied with the focus on demographic variables such as age, gender, tenure and educational level and dispositional attributes (Nijhof, De Jong & Beukhof, 1998). In addition, associated variables such as the personal characteristics of the employee, organisational characteristics and work characteristics were also investigated (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Consequences of organisational commitment were analysed. This chapter also reviews the existing connection between leadership style and organisational commitment.

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Generally, organisational researchers agree that a consensus has not yet been reached over the definition of organisational commitment (Mowday, 1998; Scholl, 1981; Suliman & Isles, 2000a; 2000b; Zangaro, 2001). Scholl (1981) indicates that the way organisational commitment is defined depends on the approach to commitment that one is adhering to. Accordingly, organisational commitment is defined either as an employee attitude or as a force that binds an employee to an organisation. According to Suliman and Isles (2000a), there are currently four main approaches to conceptualising and exploring organisational commitment. There is the attitudinal approach, the behavioural approach, the normative approach and the multidimensional approach.

The attitudinal approach views commitment largely as an employee attitude or more specifically as a set of behavioural intentions. The most widely accepted attitudinal

conceptualisation of organisational commitment is that by Porter and his colleagues who define organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individuals' identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Mowday, et al., 1979). They mention three characteristics of organisational commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation. Within this approach, the factors associated with commitment include positive work experiences, personal characteristics and job characteristics, while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

The second approach refers to organisational commitment as behaviour (Zangaro, 2001). The behavioural approach emphasises the view that an employee continues with an employing organisation because investments such as time spent in the organisation, friendships formed within the organisation and pension benefits, tie the employee to the organisation. Thus an employee becomes committed to an organisation because of "sunk costs" that are too costly to lose. The side-bet theory forms the foundation of this approach (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Becker (1960), employee commitment is continued association with an organisation that occurs because of an employee's decision after evaluating the costs of leaving the organisation. He emphasises that this commitment only happens once the employee has recognised the cost associated with discontinuing his association with the organisation. In a similar vein, Kanter (1968) defines organisational commitment as "profit" associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving. That is, employees stand to either profit or lose depending on whether they choose to remain with the organisation. Whereas the attitudinal approach uses the concept of commitment to explain performance and membership, the behavioural school uses the concept of "investments" as "a force that ties employees to organisations", to explain organisational commitment (Scholl, 1981).

The normative approach is the third approach, which argues that congruency between employee goals and values and organisational aims make the employee feel obligated to the organisation (Becker, Randall & Reigel, 1995). From this point of view, organisational commitment has been defined as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Weiner, 1982:421).

Etzioni (1961) who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), describe organisational commitment in terms of three dimensions; moral involvement, calculative involvement and alienative involvement, with each of these dimensions representing an individual's response to organisational powers. Moral involvement is defined as a positive orientation based on an employee's internalisation and identification with organisational goals. Calculative involvement is defined as either a negative or a positive orientation of low intensity that develops due to an employee receiving inducement from the organisation that match their contributions. Alienative involvement on the other hand is described as a negative attachment to the organisation. In this situation, individuals perceive a lack of control or of the ability to change their environment and therefore remain in the organisation only because they feel they have no other options. Etzioni's (1961) three dimensions incorporate the attitudinal, behavioural and normative aspects of organisational commitment.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) supported the notion that organisational commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct by developing their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude towards the organisation, and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to development of attitudes. Taking Kelman's (1958) work as their basis, they argue that commitment could take three distinct forms that they call compliance, identification and internalisation. They believed that compliance would occur when attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Identification would occur when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Lastly, internalisation would occur when the attitudes and behaviours that one is encouraged to adopt are congruent with one's own values.

The most popular multi-dimensional approach to organisational commitment is that of Meyer and his colleagues. In 1984, Meyer and Allen, based on Becker's side-bet theory, introduced the dimension of continuance commitment to the already existing dimension of affective commitment. As a result, organisational commitment was regarded as a bi-dimensional concept that included an attitudinal aspect as well as a behavioural aspect. In 1990, Allen and Meyer added a third component, that is, normative commitment to their two dimensions of organisational commitment. They proposed that commitment as a

psychological attachment may take the following three forms: the affective, continuance and normative forms.

Meyer and Allen (1991:67) defined affective commitment as “an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation”, continuance commitment as “commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation” and normative commitment as “an employee’s feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation”. Each of these three dimensions represents a possible description of an individual’s attachment to an organisation.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have pointed out that there are differences in the dimensions, forms or components of commitment that have been described in the different multidimensional conceptualisations of organisational commitment. They attribute these differences to the different motives and strategies involved in the development of these multidimensional frameworks. These included attempts to account for empirical findings (Angle & Perry, 1981), distinguish among earlier one-dimensional conceptualisations (Allen & Meyer, 1990), ground commitment within an established theoretical context (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986) or some combination of these (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have tabulated these different dimensions for easier comparison as shown in Table 3.1

The focus of the present study is on organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept that represents the relationship between an employee and employer. The definition of organisational commitment that is adopted is that of Allen and Meyer (1990), which looks at commitment as a three dimensional concept which has an attitudinal aspect, a continuance aspect and a normative aspect. Angle and Perry (1981) argue that different factors within the organisation will influence the development of different components of organisational commitment. For example, it is hypothesized that compensation practices may induce continuance commitment as the employee might be reluctant to lose benefits while training practices might induce normative commitment. Other organisational factors that can possibly have an influence on the development of organisational commitment include trust and leadership behaviour.

Table 3.1 Dimensions of organisational commitment within multidimensional models

Angle and Perry (1981:4)	
Value commitment	“Commitment to support the goals of the organisation”
Commitment to stay	“Commitment to retain their organisational membership”
O’Reilly and Chapman (1986:493)	
Compliance	“Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards”
Identification	“Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation”
Internalisation	“Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organisational values”
Penley and Gould (1988)	
Moral	“Acceptance of and identification with organisational goals” (p. 46)
Calculative	“A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee’s receiving inducements to match contributions” (p. 46)
Alienative	“Organisational attachment which results when employees no longer perceive that there are rewards commensurate with investments: yet they remain due to environmental pressures” (p. 48)
Meyer and Allen (1991:67)	
Affective	“The employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation”
Continuance	“An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation”
Normative	“A feeling of obligation to continue employment”
Mayer and Schoorman (1992:673)	
Value	“A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation”
Continuance	“The desire to remain a member of the organisation”
Jaros et al. (1993)	
Affective	“The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on” (p. 954)
Continuance	“The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving” (p. 953)
Moral	“The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions” (p. 955)

Source: Adapted from Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:320)

The first distinction that has been made is between attitudinal commitment and behavioural commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They regard attitudinal commitment as the way people feel and think about their organisations, while behavioural commitment reflects the way individuals have become locked into the organisations. The attitudinal approach regards commitment as an employee attitude that reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Mowday (1982) describes the attitudinal approach as a commitment that focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organisation. It is a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation. Behavioural commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with this problem.

Various researchers support the notion that organisational commitment be seen as a multidimensional construct. In order to further explore the multidimensional nature of organisational commitment, the present study will treat it as a dependent variable that can be influenced by organisational factors such as leadership style.

3.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AS A MULTIDIMENSIONAL CONSTRUCT

Meyer and his colleagues (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) came up with a three-component model of organisational commitment which incorporates affective, continuance and normative as the three dimensions of organisational commitment.

3.3.1 Affective Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to affective commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Affective commitment involves three aspects: (1) the formation of an emotional attachment to an organisation, (2) identification with (3) and the desire to maintain organisational membership. Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that individuals will develop emotional attachment to an organisation when they identify with the goals of the organisation and are

willing to assist the organisation in achieving these goals. They further explain that identification with an organisation happens when the employee's own values are in harmony with organisational values and the employee is able to internalise the values and goals of the organisation. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) also described affective organisational commitment as an active relationship with the organisation such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation's well-being. From the above descriptions, a psychological identification and pride of association with the organisation is evident. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue to be a member of the organisation because they want to do so.

Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation. This is primarily because of its association with desirable work behaviours such as increased productivity, personnel stability, lower absenteeism rate, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of positive outcomes with respect to turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.3.2 Continuanace Commitment

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organisational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. The theory states that as individuals remain in the employment of an organisation for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. These investments include time, job effort, organisation specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organisation that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals.

Allen and Meyer (1990) describe continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation that reflects the employees' participation as the loss that would otherwise be suffered if they were to leave the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) explain that continuance commitment involved awareness on the employee's part of

the costs associated with leaving the organisation. This then forms the individual's primary link to the organisation and the decision to remain with the organisation is an effort to retain the benefits accrued.

Romzek (1990) argues that employees calculate their investments in the organisation based on what they have put into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation. Sometimes employees express continuance commitment because of personal investments in non-transferable investments. The investments could include time and money tied up in an organisation's retirement plan, special skills that are unique to a particular organisation, close working relationships with co-workers and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave the organisation and seek employment elsewhere.

In addition to the fear of losing investments, individuals develop continuance commitment because of a perceived lack of alternatives. Allen and Meyer (1990) as well as Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that such an individual's commitment to the organisation would be based on perceptions of employment options outside the organisation. This occurs when employees start to believe that their skills are not marketable or that they do not have the skills required to compete for positions in another field. Such employees would feel tied to their current organisation. Employees who work in environments where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment. As a result, such employees could feel compelled to commit to the organisation because of the monetary, social, psychological and other costs associated with leaving the organisation. Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

3.3.3 Normative Commitment

The third dimension of organisational commitment is normative commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Researchers have overlooked this view of organisational commitment, as relatively few studies explicitly address normative commitment. Randall and Cote (1991) as well as Allen

and Meyer (1990) are some of the few who have attempted to differentiate normative commitment from the other components of organisational commitment.

Randall and Cote (1991) regard normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employees develop after the organisation has invested in them. They argue that when employees start to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money developing and training them, such employees might feel an obligation to stay with the organisation. For example, individuals whose organisation paid for their tuition while they were improving qualifications might believe that they can reimburse the organisation by continuing to work for it. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organisation's investment in them.

O'Reilly and Chapman (1986) on the other hand defined and measured normative commitment in terms of values. They argue that congruence between an individual's and organisation's values leads to the development of organisational commitment. In support of this viewpoint are Mayer and Schoorman (1992) who describe value commitment as an employee's acceptance of an organisation's goals and values.

Jaros and his colleagues (1993) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasise the difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment, because normative commitment reflects a sense of duty, obligation or calling to work in the organisation and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment, because it is not dependent on the personal calculations of sunken costs.

The multidimensionality of organisational commitment reflects its highly complex nature. The three aspects of organisational commitment, as we have seen, seem to have different foundations. As all those forces, that are attributed to be variables associated with the different forms of commitment, co-exist in an organisation, it can be assumed that the three types of commitment can also co-exist. It is important to realize that the three different dimensions of organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can

develop one, any combination or all of the three aspects of commitment. These aspects of organisational commitments differ only on the bases of their underlying motives and outcomes (Becker, 1992). For example an employee with affective commitment will stay with an organisation and be willing to exert more effort in organisational activities while an employee with continuance commitment may remain with the organisation and not be willing to exert any more effort than is expected.

In order to understand these different dimensions of organisational commitment better, it is important that we also understand how organisational factors associated with it affect the development of commitment.

3.4 DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The value of organisational commitment is enhanced when relationships with desired outcomes are identified and when antecedent variables are identified. In this way, organisations can target specific variables that lead to optimal commitment. Thus, various researchers of organisational commitment have tried to determine what it is about the organisation and the employee's experiences that influence the development of the organisational commitment once the individual has selected membership in an organisation. A lot of empirical research has focused on the variables associated with organisational commitment. Mowday and his colleagues (1979) have grouped factors that may lead to greater organisational commitment into three major groups. According to them commitment depends on personal factors, organisational factors, and non-organisational factors.

3.4.1 Antecedent variables associated with affective commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) suggested that these variables associated with affective commitment can all be categorized into three major categories: personal characteristics, organisational characteristics and work experiences.

Personal characteristics - An analysis of the organisational commitment literature reveals a long list of demographic factors that have been associated with commitment. The relationship between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor

consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997). People's perception of their own competence might play a significant role in the development of affective commitment. From the several personal characteristics, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have determined that perceived competence and affective commitment has a strong link. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) cited that employees who have a strong confidence in their abilities and achievement have higher affective commitment. They argued that competent people are able to choose higher quality organisations, which in turn inspire affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Variables associated with commitment that may be significant for those employed in higher quality organisations generally include personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, family status and educational level, need for achievement, sense of competence and a sense of professionalism (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996). Those personal characteristics of particular interest to this study will be reviewed further:

Employee age - Employee age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for a variety of reasons. Kaldneberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995) argue that as workers get old, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They pointed out that older individuals may have more affective commitment to the organisation because they have greater history with the organisation than younger workers.

Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study, involving 41 samples and 10 335 subjects, has shown a statistically significant positive correlation of 0.20 ($p < 0.01$) between age and affective organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1996) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. In a study of university librarians and hospital employees, they obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of 0.36 ($p > 0.05$) between age and affective commitment.

Other researchers have not been able to show a significant link between age and organisational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of the affective commitment levels of 396 high school principals found a statistically non-significant correlation ($r = 0.004$) between age and affective commitment. Colbert and Kwon (2000) in a study of 497 college and university internal auditors failed to show any

reliable relationship between age and organisational commitment. Overall, age seem to have an inconsistent although moderate correlation with affective commitment.

Gender - As far as gender is concerned, the results are inconsistent. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in a meta-analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 subjects involving gender and organisational commitment obtained a mean correlation of 0.089 for organisational commitment and gender. Although they report a weak relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment, they suggest that gender may affect employee's perceptions of their workplace and attitudes towards the organisation.

Kalderberg and his colleagues (1995) found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females. In addition, Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of commitment for female and male high school principals. Wahn (1998) on the other hand argues that women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment that men can. She cites reasons such as the fact that women face greater barriers than men when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance commitment of women. She argues that having overcome these barriers, women would be more committed to continue the employment relationship.

Although the literature quoted here is not exhaustive on the subject of the effect of gender on organisational commitment, it seems as if gender makes no difference on organisational commitment levels. Ngo and Tsang (1998) support the viewpoint that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtle.

Organisational Tenure - Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reviewed 38 samples that included 12290 subjects and found a positive link between organisational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of $r = 0.17$ ($p > 0.01$). Kushman (1992) in his study on urban elementary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation ($r = 0.17$; $p > 0.05$) between the number of years in teaching and organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1993) indicated that an analysis of organisational tenure showed a mild curvilinear relationship with organisational commitment. They showed that middle tenure employees exhibited less

measured commitment than new or senior employees did. These findings are supported by Liou and Nyhan (1994), who found a negative relationship between tenure and affective commitment ($t = -3.482$). However, these two authors did not find significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure.

In a study of Japanese industrial workers, Tao, Takagi, Ishida and Masuda (1998) found that organisational tenure predicted internalisation. Consistent with other researchers, Hawkins (1998) found a statistically significant positive correlation of $r = 0.25$ between the organisational commitment and tenure of 202 high school principals. Colbert and Kwon (2000) found a significant relationship ($r = 0.11, p < 0.05$) between tenure and organisational commitment. They found that employees with a longer tenure had a higher degree of organisational commitment than that of their counterparts.

Although there seem to be empirical evidence to positively link tenure and organisational commitment, it is still not clear how this link operates (Meyer & Allen, 1997). They suggest that employees with long organisational tenure may develop retrospective attachment to the organisation. These kinds of employees attribute their long service to emotional attachment in an effort to justify to themselves why they have stayed that long. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and affective commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organisation and only those with a high commitment remain.

Although the relationship between gender, age and tenure as well as educational level and organisational commitment has been extensively studied, the literature has yet to provide strong and consistent evidence to enable an unequivocal interpretation of the relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, they caution that one cannot assume that growing older makes one develop higher affective commitment. They argue that the positive association might simply be because of differences in the particular generational cohorts that were studied. On the other hand, older employees might have more positive work experiences than younger employees. Overall, empirical evidence suggests that age and affective commitment are significantly related.

Organisational Characteristic - Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that affective commitment develops as a result of experiences that satisfy employees' need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in the organisation. These experiences include those that lead to a perception of support from the organisation. Employees who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organisational characteristics such as structure, culture and organisational level policies can induce perceptions of organisational support to induce organisational commitment.

Work Experience - According to Meyer and Allen (1997), work experience variables have the strongest and most consistent correlation with affective commitment in most studies. In Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study, affective commitment has shown a positive correlation with the job scope, a composite of three variables, namely job challenge, degree of autonomy and variety of skills used. Affective commitment to the organisation is stronger among employees whose leaders allow them to participate in decision making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981) and those who treat them with consideration (DeCottis & Summer, 1987).

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that the latitude that employees have to express their attitude to the organisation will vary considerably across the performance indicators and between jobs. The strongest links between affective commitment and behaviour will be observed for behaviour that is relevant to the constituency (or supervisor) to whom the commitment is directed.

On the basis of the antecedents research on affective commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggests a possible universal appeal for those work environments where employees are supported, treated fairly and made to feel that they make contributions to the organisation. Such experiences might fulfil higher order desires to enhance perceptions of self worth.

3.4.2 Antecedent variables associated with continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the employee's decision to continue employment because it would be costly to leave the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment can develop because of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving

the organisation, provided the employee recognises that these costs have been incurred (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They summarise these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investments and employment alternatives.

Investments - In terms of organisational commitment, investments refer to any actions that would result in considerable potential loss, should the individual decide to leave the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Once employees realise that moving to a new organisation would result in the forfeiture of benefits, they might decide to stay within the current organisation rather than lose the investments. Such employees develop continuance commitment as they stay with the organisation as a calculated decision rather than an eagerness to do so.

Investments can take any form and may be either work or non-work related. Work related investments include such things as the time spent acquiring non-transferable skills, the potential loss of benefits and giving up a senior position and its associated rewards (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Non-work related investments might include the disruption of personal relationships and the expense and human cost of relocating a family to another city. Investments can also take the form of time devoted to a particular career track or development of work groups or even friendship networks (Romzek, 1990). Leaving the organisation could mean that the employee would stand to lose or would have wasted time, money or effort that was invested. These investments are assumed to increase in number and magnitude over time. Thus, age and tenure are associated with the accumulation of investments.

Romzek (1990) suggests that organisations can easily get employees to feel that they have made big investments in the organisation. He reckons that organisations have only to offer opportunities and working conditions that are competitive with other prospective employers. Typically, investment factors include promotion prospects, development of work group networks, performance bonuses, the accrual of vacation and sick leave, family-friendly policies and retirement benefits. If these cannot be easily matched by prospective employers, the organisation's employees might remain "stuck" in the organisation even though they are no longer effective.

Effective alternatives - The other hypothesised antecedent of continuance commitment is the availability of employment alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that an employee's perception of the availability of alternatives will be negatively correlated with continuance commitment. They reckon that employees who think they have viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are limited.

As with investments, several events or actions can influence one's perceptions of the availability of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For example, employees might base their perceptions of available alternative jobs by scanning the external environment, looking at local employment rates and the general economic climate. On the other hand, other individuals might base perceived alternatives on the degree to which their skills seem current and marketable. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that such things as the results of previous job search attempts and whether other organisations have tried to recruit the employee and the extent to which family factors limit the employee's ability to relocate can also influence perceptions of alternatives. For example, if individuals had applied for work and have not been successful on several occasions, those individuals might begin to think that they have no alternatives and would rather continue with the current employer. On the other hand, individuals who have been approached by other organisations might believe that they have ample alternatives and would not feel tied to the current employer.

The availability of alternative employment does not influence continuance commitment on its own (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998). It may often work in conjunction with the extent to which family factors permit or enable an employee's ability to relocate or take up a new job. For example, even though employees might have a better paying job offer, if it turns out that there are no schools for their children or their spouse would not be able to find employment in the new town, the employee might choose to decline the offer and remain with the current employer.

In addition to perceived alternatives, there are other potential variables associated with continuance commitment. These factors accumulate over time. Time-based variables such as age and tenure are also hypothesized as factors associated with continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Studies using these as variables have shown mixed results. For

some employees, the perceived cost associated with leaving an organisation will increase as they get older and increase their organisational tenure. For others, however, the costs of leaving might actually decrease as experience and skills increase. For this reason, Meyer and Allen (1997) recommend that age and tenure are best thought of as substitute variables of accumulated investments and perceived alternatives and not as direct predictors of continuance commitment. Associated with time-based investments is the employee's perception about the transferability of their skills and their education to other organisations will determine their judgement of the availability of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Those employees who think their educational training investments are less easily transferable elsewhere would tend to perceive a lack of alternatives and thus express stronger continuance commitment to their organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1997) emphasise the fact that neither investments nor alternatives will have an influence on continuance commitment unless or until the employee is aware of them and the implications of losing them. Thus, the employee's recognition that investments and/or lack of alternatives make leaving more costly represents a process that develops continuance commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the fact that recognition plays a central role in this process raises two points. First, it means that people who are in objectively similar situations can have different levels of continuance commitment. Second, for some cost-related variables to influence continuance commitment, a particular triggering event is required to focus the employee's attention on these variables. The final point to make is that the specific set of variables that influence an employee's continuance commitment might be idiosyncratic to that person. It can include both work-related and non-work related variables.

3.4.3 Antecedent variables associated with normative commitment

Compared to affective and continuance commitment, very few factors have been described as variables associated with normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), normative commitment might develop based on the psychological contract between an employee and the organisation. A psychological contract refers to the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations. Although psychological contracts can take different forms, Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that the

transactional and relational might be closely related to continuance commitment. They describe transactional contracts as more objective and based on principles of economic exchange while relational contracts as more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Furthermore, they consider relational contracts more relevant to normative commitment while transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) also refer to the possible role that early socialisation experiences might have in the development of normative commitment. They suggest that socialisation can carry with it all sorts of messages about the appropriateness of particular attitudes and behaviours within the organisation. Amongst these attitudes could be the idea that employees owe it to the organisation to continue employment. Meyer and Allen (1997) assume internalisation to be the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of assuming employment with an organisation. They reason that through a complex process involving both conditioning and modelling of others, individuals can develop normative commitment.

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the employees find difficult to reciprocate (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For example, if an organisation sponsored tuition on behalf of an employee, the employee might feel uncomfortable and indebted. Given the norms of reciprocity, employees might develop feelings of obligation to the organisation as they try to rectify the imbalance. Cultural and individual differences exist in the extent to which people will internalise reciprocity norms and therefore in the extent to which organisational investments will lead to feelings of indebtedness.

3.5 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

One reason organisational commitment has emerged as a focus in the study of work attitudes and behaviour is due to demonstrated links with turnover intention and turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that disparate outcomes are associated with the different factors motivating employees to remain with the organisations. According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990), commitment has been significantly negatively associated with

turnover. A longitudinal study by Porter, Steer, Mowday and Boulian (1974) found that “leavers” of organisations were consistently characterised by lower levels of commitment than “stayers”.

Meyer and Allen (1997) caution that the different components of commitment may have different consequences for work-related behaviour. For example, employees high in affective commitment demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organisation. These employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour and more willing to accept change (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998). Normative commitment is also expected to have similar consequences as affective commitment. This type of commitment focuses on moral obligation which derives in part from the socialisation practices of the organisations. Employees have an obligation to reciprocate to the organisation and therefore they are less likely to leave, be absent and be more receptive to change (Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf, 1994, in Iverson and Buttigieg, 1998). The third form of commitment, continuance, anticipates having a similar relationship as affective commitment with both turnover intentions and absenteeism, but employees with high levels of continuance commitment generally react negatively to change (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998).

It is clear that organisations operating in today’s complex and dynamic business environment need to constantly adapt and change (Carrel, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & van der Schyf, 1998) and as such it is important that organisations elicit higher levels of affective and normative commitment. These organisations allow employees to effectively embrace change, thus creating sustainable competitive advantage. Indeed, the consequences of employee commitment to the organisation will affect the ability of organisations to retain its most valuable human resource (Price, 1997).

3.6 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Stum (1999), employee commitment reflects the quality of the leadership in the organisation. Therefore it is logical to assume that leadership behaviour would have a significant relationship with the development of organisational commitment. Previous

research suggests a positive direct relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational commitment.

Transformational leadership is generally associated with desired organisational outcomes such as the willingness of followers to expend extra effort (Bass, 1985a; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). A willingness to expend extra effort indicates some degree of commitment. Contingent reward behaviours that represent transactional leadership have been found to be reasonably associated with performance and work attitudes of followers although at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviours (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a).

A relationship between commitment and leadership style has been reported in the organisational and management literature. Billingsley and Cross (1992) reported a positive relationship between leader support and commitment. Tao and his colleagues (1998) also found that supervisory behaviour predicted internalisation ($R^2 = 0.180$, $p < 0.01$). In three separate studies, Popper, Maysel and Castelnovo (2000) found evidence to support the hypothesis that a positive correlation existed between transformational leadership and attachment. Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996) found that leadership behaviours explained 48% of the variance in organisational commitment and 55% of trust.

Kent and Chelladurai (2001) found that individualised consideration has positive correlation with both affective commitment ($r = 0.475$, $p < 0.001$) and normative commitment ($r = .354$, $p < 0.001$). They also found positive correlations between intellectual stimulation and both affective commitment ($r = 0.487$, $p < 0.001$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.292$, $p < 0.05$). Hayward, Goss and Tolmay (2004) also found that transformational leadership has moderate positive correlation with affective commitment ($r = 0.5278$, $p < 0.0001$). Lower correlation coefficients between transformational leadership and normative, as well as continuance, commitment were found. No correlation was found between transactional leadership and affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Work by Shamir and colleagues (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin & Popper, 1998) suggests that transformational leaders are able to influence followers' organisational commitment by promoting higher levels of intrinsic value associated with goal accomplishment, emphasising the linkages between follower effort and goal

achievement, and by creating a higher level of personal commitment on the part of the leader and followers to a common vision, mission and organisational goals.

Transformational leaders influence followers' organisational commitment by encouraging them to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision-making processes and inspiring loyalty while recognizing and appreciating the different needs of each follower to develop his or her personal potential (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yammarino, Spangler & Bass, 1993). By encouraging followers to seek new ways to approach problems and challenges and identifying with followers' needs, transformational leaders are able to motivate their followers to get more involved in their work, resulting in higher levels of organisational commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). This view was supported by prior research that showed that organisational commitment was higher for employees whose leaders encouraged participation in decision-making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), emphasised consideration (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995) and were supportive and concerned for their followers' development (Allen & Meyer, 1990; 1996).

3.7 CONCLUSIONS

Organisational commitment has been defined in this chapter. The different forms of organisational commitment were also discussed with the approaches developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) as well as Meyer and Allen (1991). Based on the different components of commitment, organisational commitment was further described as a multidimensional concept. The development of an organisational commitment was discussed according to Allen and Meyer's (1990) approach. According to these researchers, organisational commitment can be classified into affective commitment (emotional attachment), continuance commitment (costs associated with leaving the organisation) and normative commitment (moral obligation to remain with the organisation). The literature indicates that organisational commitment is linked to various variables, which include both personal variables such as age and gender, leadership style and trust. The literature also reveals that commitment entails a high level of identification with the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert extra effort for the benefit of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Morrow, 1983).

The research will indicate the relationship of the different leadership styles (i.e. transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership), on the different types of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance).

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters reviewed the literature pertaining to leadership style and employee commitment. This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study to test the hypothesis and the rationale behind it. The population, sample and the sampling approach is described. Furthermore, the two instruments that were used in the research are described and their applicability discussed. Finally, a brief description of the relevant statistical techniques used in the study is also provided.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2004), there are different types of social research methods that can be identified from the literature, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and explanatory research. Peil (1982) stated that much of the social research, especially in developing countries, sets out to explore a new era or at least one about which little is known in the local context. This aptly describes the present research as a first of its kind in an electricity utility in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa. Thus, the nature of this study lends towards exploratory research, exploring the relationship between leadership style being practised within Eskom Eastern Region and employee commitment to the organisation.

Babbie and Mouton (2004) conclude that the aims for social research vary a great deal, ranging from, gaining new sights into the phenomenon; undertaking preliminary investigation before a more structured study of the phenomenon is done; describing central concepts and constructs of a phenomenon; determining priorities for the research and developing new hypotheses about existing phenomena.

Selltiz, Johoda, Deutsch and Cook (1966) suggest that for any research to be purposeful, it should discover answers to the research questions. They emphasise that there are three research strategies by means of which exploratory research can be conducted:

- A review of related social science and other pertinent literature.

- A survey of people who have had practical experience with the problem to be researched.
- An analysis of “insight-stimulating” examples.

The above three exploratory research strategies aptly apply to the present study as it entails the review of pertinent literature, the relationship between the leadership style and organisational commitment, as well as the analysis of one electricity utility as an insight-stimulating example.

4.2 GOALS OF THE RESEARCH AND HYPOTHESIS

The overall goal of the research is to identify different dimensions of leadership style that have an influence on employee commitment in general and be able to determine the relationship between the two. Thus, the main objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between various leadership styles and various employee commitment styles to an electricity utility in South Africa. From the identification of the broad objectives of the research, the specific hypothesis was formulated. The hypotheses are concerned with the relationship between the various leadership styles being practised within the organisation and its influence on the various employee commitment styles. The results of the research could mould how future leadership training will be configured within the company being researched. Therefore, the hypotheses for this research are as follows:

H₀₁: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

H_{a1}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

H₀₂: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

H_{a2}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

- H₀₃: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a3}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.
- H₀₄: There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a4}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.
- H₀₅: There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a5}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.
- H₀₆: There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a6}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.
- H₀₇: There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a7}: There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.
- H₀₈: There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.
- H_{a8}: There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

H₀₉: There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

H_{a9}: There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was conducted within the post-positivist paradigm. This philosophical stance sees a researcher as an objective analyst and an interpreter of tangible social reality (critical realism), giving the former independence from the research, the ability to critically evaluate the evidence and generalise (Remenyi & Williams, 1996).

According to Adams and Schvaneveldt (1985:103) “research design refers to a plan, blueprint or guide for data collection and interpretation – a set of rules that enable the investigator to conceptualise and observe the problem under study”. From the hypotheses it is evident that the research is of a quantitative nature. Figure 4.1 below provides a schematic diagram of the research method proposed. This method consists of the following steps: selection of research method; population and sampling; questionnaire selection; data collection; data capturing; data statistical analysis.

4.3.1 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations of confidentiality and privacy were addressed. A concerted and conscious effort was made at all times to uphold this promise. A guarantee was given to the Eskom Eastern Region’s respondents that their names were not revealed in the research report. In order to ensure the success of the research, managers were linked to subordinates in such a manner that each subordinates’ response remained anonymous apart from being linked to a particular manager. Finally, the organisation will be given a copy of the final report.

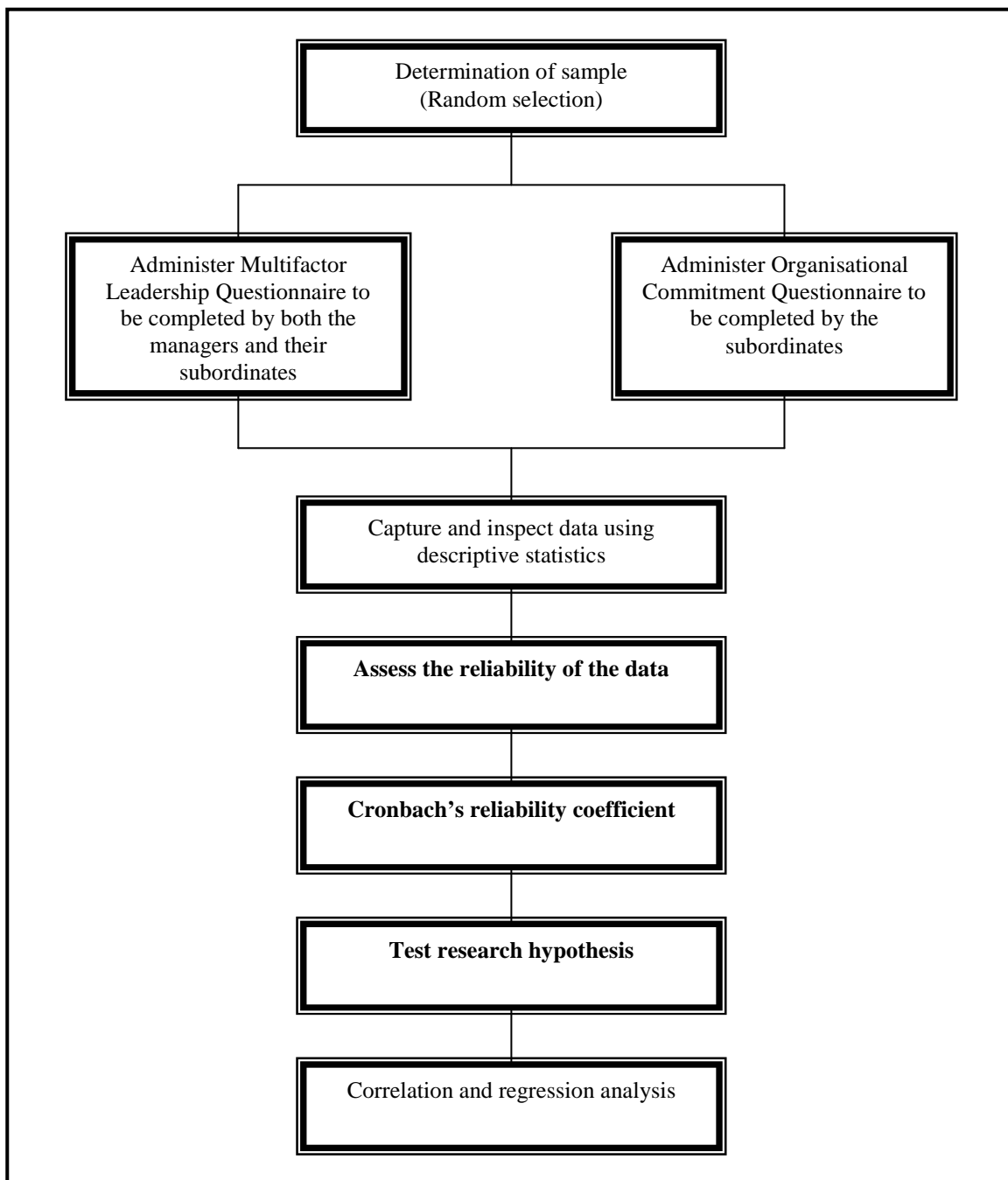


Figure 4.1: A schematic representation of the general research design

4.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Trochin (2000) describes a research population as a group that the researcher wants to generalise to and the sample as the group of people that are selected to be in the study. This was supported by Sekaran (2000) when he defined a sample as a subset of the population in

question and comprises a selection of members from that particular population. The definition of the sample is of vital importance as the results of an investigation are not trustworthy more than the quality of the population or representativeness of the sample. The targeted population for this study is professionals (managers, engineers and technicians) who have been with the company for more than three years.

Table 4.1 Population, sample and responses rates

	Managers	Subordinates
Population	92	371
Sample	86	334
Responses	35	162

For the purpose of this study, out of a population of 92 managers, a sample of 86 was randomly drawn (using EXCEL random generator on the manager’s unique numbers). Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) believe this technique to be valid as it provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in a population. As shown in Table 4.1, 35 managers successfully completed and returned the questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 41%. In order to obtain a holistic view of the overall leadership style present in the organisation, three or more subordinates (per randomly selected manager) were also randomly selected for the administration of the rater version of the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. A sample of 334 subordinates was targeted from a population of approximately 371. A total of 162 questionnaires were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 48%. The total number of responses analysed, including leaders and their corresponding raters, was 197 employees.

4.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Two questionnaires were used in this research to obtain information on leadership and organisational commitment, respectively, namely the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ) and *Organisational Commitment Questionnaire* (OCQ).

4.5.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire [MLQ]

After an extensive literature review on leadership in chapter 2, it was argued that, for the purpose of this research, the Full Range Leadership Development Theory is a suitable theoretical construct of leadership. The MLQ was formulated from the Full Range Leadership Development Theory (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Thus, the MLQ is based on the work of renowned leadership theorists like Bass, Avolio and Yammarino (Avolio & Bass, 1997). The MLQ has been improved and tested since 1985 with the result that many versions of the questionnaire have been developed. The latest versions, Form 5X (Revised), were used in this study.

The MLQ takes the form of a number of statements about the leadership style of the individual being tested. The questionnaire used in this study contains 45 statements that identify and measure the key aspects of leadership behaviours. Each statement corresponds to one of the nine components of either transformational, transactional or laissez-faire leadership factors. The transformational leadership style is divided into idealised charismatic behaviours and attributes. Factors representing transformational leadership include idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership style is represented by two factors called contingent rewards and management-by-exception. Management-by-exception is also divided into Management-by-exception-active (MBEA) and Management-by-exception-passive (MBEP). Thus, MLQ 5X (Revised) contains nine factors.

The MLQ comprises a 5 point Likert scale and the respondents were instructed during the administration of the questionnaires by the researcher to mark the most suitable answer. The scale ranges from 0 to 4 as follows:

- 0 - Not at all
- 1 - Once in a while
- 2 - Sometimes
- 3 - Fairly often, and
- 4 - Frequently if not always

Each respondent was required to assess and testify as to how frequently the behaviours described by each of the statements are exhibited by their leader. The MLQ consists of two versions known as the ‘rater version’ and the ‘self-rater version’ (see Appendix L and M). These two versions consist of exactly the same statements, except that they are written from different perspectives. The leader, for example, would be given the statement, ‘I spend time teaching and coaching’, whereas the subordinate’s questionnaire would say, ‘The person I am rating spends time teaching and coaching’.

In this study, leaders completed the self-rater MLQ, by rating themselves in terms of the transformational, transactional or laissez-faire leadership factors. Subordinates also completed the rater version of the same questionnaire. The leaders were rated in terms of the same criteria on which they have rated themselves. In order to gain an accurate picture of the leader’s ability, the rater MLQ was completed by three or more respondents (Bass, 1985b). Examples of items from the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership are shown in Table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2: Examples of items from the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles

Transformational Leadership	
Idealised influence (attributed)	I instill pride in others for being associated with me.
Idealised influence (behaviour)	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.
Inspirational motivation	I talk optimistically about the future.
Individualised consideration	I spend time teaching and coaching.
Intellectual stimulation	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
Transactional Leadership	
Contingent rewards	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.
Management-by-exception-active	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.
Management-by-exception-passive	I fail to interfere until problems become serious.
Laissez-Faire Leadership	
Laissez-faire	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.

4.5.1.1 *Reliability and validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Reliability and validity are two key components to be considered when evaluating a particular instrument. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000), reliability is concerned with the consistency of the instrument and an instrument is said to have high reliability if it can be trusted to give an accurate and consistent measurement of an unchanging value. The validity of an instrument refers to how well an instrument measures the particular concept it is supposed to measure (Whitelaw, 2001). He argues that an instrument must be reliable before it can be valid, implying that the instrument must be consistently reproducible; and that once this has been achieved, the instrument can then be scrutinised to assess whether it is what it purports to be.

The MLQ has been tested for reliability and validity in many settings (Pruijn and Boucher, 1994). Bass (1985b), Bass and Avolio (1989) as well as Yammarino and Bass (1990) have proved the content and concurrent validity of the MLQ. Avolio and Bass (1997) also proved the construct validity of the MLQ. According to Bass and Avolio (1997), further reliability of the MLQ has been proven many times through test-retest, internal consistency methods and alternative methods.

Avolio, Bass and Jung (1995) confirmed the reliability of the MLQ by using a large pool of data (N = 1394). According to Avolio and his colleagues the MLQ scales exhibited high internal consistency and factor loadings. They reported reliabilities for total items and for each leadership factor scale that ranged from 0.74 to 0.94.

Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman (1997) also investigated the internal consistency of the MLQ subscales. Their study group consisted of approximately 1200 employees from several diverse organisations (commercial businesses, health-care organisations, welfare institutions and local governments). Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha coefficient) for the subscales of transformational leadership ranged from 0.72 to 0.93; transactional leadership ranged from 0.58 to 0.78; and laissez-faire leadership was 0.49.

The MLQ has been tested in the South African environment. Ackermann, Schepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2000) utilised the MLQ to determine whether the factor structure of the

MLQ, as a measure of transformational leadership, could be replicated in South Africa. Using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, Ackermann and his colleagues (2000) determined the reliability of the three main scales within the MLQ, namely transformational, transactional or laissez-faire. The resultant scores of 0.944, 0.736 and 0.803 were obtained, respectively.

4.5.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire [OCQ]

Meyer and Allen (1984) initially distinguished between two types of commitment: affective commitment and continuance commitment. Affective commitment denoted a sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the organisation, whereas continuance commitment emphasised the perceived costs of leaving the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) subsequently introduced a third component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflected the perceived obligation to remain with the organisation. They created a pool of 51 items for the scale. The scale was tested with approximately 500 employees from two manufacturing firms and a university. Clerical, managerial and supervisory employees were represented in the sample. Females represented 57 percent of the sample. Scale items for measuring affective, normative and continuance commitment were selected for inclusion in the scales based on a series of decision rules that took into consideration item endorsement proportions, item-total correlations, direction of scoring and content redundancy (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Later, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) revised the normative commitment scale to clarify the distinction between affective commitment and normative commitment.

While the earlier versions (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991) of the OCQ contained 24 items (8 items for each scale), the later version by Meyer and Allen (1997) as well as Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) only contained 18 items (6 items for each scale). In this study, the affective, continuance and normative commitment of employees was assessed through the administration of Bagraim's (2004) adaptation of Meyer and Allen's (1997) 18 items' three dimensional commitment measure. Bagraim (2004) found that his 12 item adaptation of the multi-dimensional approach, as evident in Meyer and Allen's (1997) measure, to be warranted and appropriate in the South African context. Examples of items from the OCQ include: (a) affective commitment – "I feel like part of the family at this organisation"; (b) continuance commitment – "I would not leave this organisation right now

because of what I would stand to lose”; and (c) normative commitment – “I would violate a trust, if I quit my job with this organisation now”.

The OCQ comprises a 5 point Likert scale and the respondents were instructed during the administration of the questionnaires by the researcher to mark the most suitable answer (see appendix N). The scale ranges from 0 to 4 as follows:

- 0 - Strongly Disagree
- 1 - Disagree
- 2 - Neutral
- 3 - Agree
- 4 - Strongly Agree

Allen and Meyer’s (1990) examination of the relationships between the commitment scales revealed that the continuance commitment scale was relatively independent from affective ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.06$) and normative ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.14$) commitment. However, the correlations between the affective and normative scales were statistically significant and relatively strong ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.51$). Cohen (1996) reported similar findings: normative and affective ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.54$), normative and continuance (non-significant, $r = 0.06$), and continuance and affective (non-significant, $r = 0.02$).

4.5.2.1 *Reliability and validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire*

Several studies have been conducted to examine the reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient) of the OCQ. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported the reliability of the affective commitment scale as 0.87, continuance commitment scale as 0.75 and the normative commitment scale as 0.79. Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) found alpha ranges of 0.74 to 0.87 for affective, 0.73 to 0.81 for continuance and 0.67 to 0.78 for normative commitment. Cohen (1996) discovered alphas of 0.79 for affective, 0.69 for continuance and 0.65 for normative commitment.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) performed a meta-analysis of studies using both the 6-item and 8-item OCQ. They collected data from people who had sought permission to use the OCQ during the last 15 years as well as from computer databases

dating back to 1985. The mean reliability from all the studies was 0.82 for affective, 0.73 for continuance and 0.76 for normative. These results showed that the three commitment constructs could be reliably measured.

4.6 DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Table 4.3 lists the dependent and independent variables that are part of this study. Three separate measures of organisational commitment were used as dependent variables. These measures are the affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale and normative commitment scale of the OCQ. Variables measuring Full Range Leadership behaviours were considered separately. The subscales for these variables are contained in the MLQ Form 5X.

Table 4.3: Dependent and independent variables

Instrument	Variables	Scales
Dependent Measures		
<i>Organisational Commitment Questionnaire</i>	Organisational commitment	Affective commitment
		Continuance commitment
		Normative commitment
Independent Measures		
<i>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire</i>	Transformational leadership	Idealised influence (Attributed)
		Idealised influence (Behaviour)
		Inspirational motivation
		Intellectual stimulation
		Individual consideration
	Transactional leadership	Contingent Reward
		Management-by-exception (Active)
		Management-by-exception (Passive)
	Laissez-Faire	Laissez-Faire

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000), there are three common methods of data collection, namely, observation, interviews and questionnaires. Sekaran (2000) suggests that questionnaires are an efficient data collection mechanism provided the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. Questionnaires can be administered personally, mailed to the respondents or even electronically distributed depending on the situation (Sekaran, 2000).

A list of all managers and professional employees in the sample was obtained from the Human Resource Manager in Eskom Eastern Region. The researcher and the Human Resource Manager then drafted a letter (see Appendix J) that was sent via e-mail to the relevant managers and professional employees in the sample. This letter was to inform the managers and employees in the sample about the purpose and confidentiality of the research. The researcher held meetings with certain HR managers where the reasons and method of the study was discussed and emphasised.

For the purposes of this research, the questionnaires were used to gather the necessary information. In an attempt not to disrupt business operations and to ensure that the respondents would receive the documents in the shortest possible time, questionnaires were distributed through the internal mailing system. This is a non-personal technique of data collection due to the fact that the respondents complete the questionnaires without the interviewer being present. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a further covering letter (see Appendix K) explaining the purpose of the study to the prospective respondent. General instructions on completing the questionnaire and the importance of completing all questions were included. The covering letter also explained why it is important that the potential respondent personally complete the questionnaire. This technique of data collection addressed issues of cost, time and geographical constraints.

In both measuring instruments, the respondents were informed that they were allowed to leave a question/answer blank if the question appeared unclear or ambiguous. Contact details were provided on the covering letter, offering the leaders and employees the opportunity to contact the researcher in the event of any queries or problems that may have arisen. The

covering letter requested the leaders to return the questionnaire and answer sheet, via the internal mailing system, to the researcher.

4.8 DATA CAPTURING

Once the questionnaires had been completed, the researcher then coded the responses in each questionnaire. These scores were captured in a Microsoft EXCEL spreadsheet for statistical analysis with respect to Leader, Rater, Organisational Commitment and Demographic variables. The managers were numbered L-01 to L-35. The subordinates were numbered L01-E01, L01-E02 and so on, until L35-E04, in this research. In this way the subordinates could be linked to the managers and anonymity was also sustained. The scores captured onto a Microsoft EXCEL spreadsheet were then imported into Statistica (a data analysis product) for analysis (in StatSoft, 2006). The data analysis will be discussed further in the next section.

4.9 DATA ANALYSIS

Once data was collected, it was necessary to employ statistical techniques to analyse the information, as this study is quantitative in nature. Using the Statistica computer program, two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to test the hypothesis of this research (using StatSoft, 2006). The correlation analysis helped in determining both the form and degree of the relationship between the leadership style and employee commitment. Thus, both the strength of the relationship between variables and the level of statistical significance were assessed.

4.9.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is typically equated with internal consistency (De Vellis, 1991). The Cronbach's Alpha is interpreted as a coefficient Alpha and its value ranges from 0 to 1. Sekaran (2000) advises that when calculating Cronbach's reliability coefficient, reliabilities less than 0.6 are considered poor, reliabilities within 0.7 ranges are considered acceptable and those coefficients over 0.8 are considered good.

4.9.2 Hypothesis Testing

As mentioned previously, the hypothesis of the study is concerned with establishing a relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to the organisation. Thus, it is necessary to use statistical tests to test the strength and direction of the relationship between these two variables of the hypothesis.

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted, using Statistica, in order to establish if a relationship exists between the leadership style and employee commitment to Eskom Eastern Region. Correlation analysis measures the degree of a relationship between two variables and expresses the extent of this relationship by means of correlation (Bless & Kathuria, 1993). Boyd, Westfall and Stasch (1985) as well as Bryman and Cramer (1990) states that measures of correlation indicate both the strength and direction (+ or -) of the relationship between two variables. The statistic calculated is the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) and varies between -1 and +1. The nearer the value of r is to zero, the weaker the relationship, and the closer to unity (- or +), the stronger the relationship. In summary the sign of the Pearson correlation coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship, and its absolute value indicates the strength, with larger absolute values indicating stronger relationships. In this study, correlation coefficients represent the nature of the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment, whereby a coefficient of above 0.8 represent a strong relationship, a coefficient of between 0.5 and 0.8 represent a moderate relationship, and a coefficient below 0.5 represent a weak relationship (Devore & Peck, 1993).

The statistical significance (p-level) of the results represents a decreasing index of the reliability of a result. The higher the p-level, the less we can believe that the observed relation between variables in the sample is a reliable indicator of the relation between the respective variables in the population. The p-level represents the probability of error that is involved in accepting the observed result as valid, that is, as a representative of the population (MacColl, 2004). The procedure to test the statistical significance of the hypothesis in this study is as follows: If the computer generated p-value is less than the level of significance (α) of 0.05, the researcher will REJECT the null hypothesis. The researcher then concludes that there is a statistical significant and positive/negative relationship between the variables under study. If the p-value is greater than the level of

significance of 0.05, then the researcher will FAIL TO REJECT the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no statistical significant and positive/negative relationship between the variables (Sekaran, 2000).

It is critical to specify whether the test is one-tailed or two-tailed. A one-tailed test is used when there is a specific direction to the hypothesis being tested. On the other hand, a two-tailed test is applied when a relationship is expected, but the direction of the relationship is not predicted (Field, 2000). Due to the nature of the hypothesis of the current study, the two-tailed test was used.

The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the factors of transformational and transactional as well as organisational commitment were analysed, with reference to the Pearson correlation test results for further understanding and analysis.

4.10 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presented the methodology of the research and the process of data collection and analysis. The hypothesis of the research was presented and the research design outlined. Information regarding the sample size and the number of participants, included in the final statistical analysis, was presented. An overview of the data collection method was then given. Each of the two instruments used in this research, as well as their reliability and validity, were then discussed in detail. Finally, the statistical analysis of hypotheses was highlighted. Also included within this chapter were the ethical considerations that needed to be taken into account when doing the actual research and data gathering.

The previous chapters discussed the theoretical background of the research topic, and this chapter discusses the research process and methods of obtaining both the relevant information and the subsequent results. The following chapter will present the results obtained from correlation analysis conducted in an attempt to test the research hypothesis.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the methodology followed within this research study. The goals of the research and the hypothesis were presented. A schematic description of the research design was represented in Figure 3.1. The chapter also alluded to ethical considerations; the research population and sample; the instruments used and their respective reliability and validity; the process of data collection, capturing and analysis; the calculation of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and finally the hypothesis testing. This chapter presents and discusses the results of the correlation analysis of the research hypothesis and the assessment of the reliability of the research data. Descriptive statistics was used to summarise quantitative data and relationships which are not apparent in the raw data. This helped to interpret and understand the results.

5.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TARGETED SAMPLE

5.2.1 Response rate

As indicated in Table 4.1, of the 86 leaders surveyed in the sample, 35 managers successfully completed and returned the questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 41%. A sample of 334 subordinates was targeted from a population of approximately 371. A total of 162 questionnaires were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 48%. Finally, the total sample size, including leaders and their corresponding raters, equals 197 respondents, amounting to a total response rate of approximately 47%. Over 80% of the 197 respondents (including leaders and corresponding raters) were raters or employees.

5.2.2 Demographic data

Demographic data was collected in various aspects and Table 5.1 presents the summary of the results. These statistics revealed that 63% of the participants were blacks (Asian,

Coloured and indigent African), 72% were males and 70% were married. The average period of employment was 11½ years while the average period of employment under the same immediate managers, was a little over 9 years.

Table 5.1 Demographic Information

GENDER			RACE		
	Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage
Male	141	72%	Black	124	63%
Female	56	28%	White	73	37%

MARITAL STATUS				
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Married	137	70%	137	70%
Single	44	22%	181	92%
Other	16	8%	197	100%

AGE				
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
21 to 30	50	25%	50	25%
31 to 40	75	38%	125	63%
41 to 50	46	23%	171	87%
51 to 60	25	13%	196	99%
61 or older	1	1%	197	100%

YEARS WORKING IN THE ORGANISATION						
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage	Mean	Std. Dev.
3 to 5	65	33%	65	33%	11.51	7.6235
6 to 10	38	19%	103	52%		
11 to 15	35	18%	138	70%		
16 to 20	31	16%	169	86%		
21 and above	28	14%	197	100%		

YEARS WORKING FOR THE CURRENT MANAGER						
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage	Mean	Std. Dev.
3 to 5	89	45%	89	45%	9.06	6.5209
6 to 10	42	21%	131	66%		
11 to 15	31	16%	162	82%		
16 to 20	17	9%	179	91%		
21 and above	18	9%	197	100%		

5.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are used to summarise quantitative data, enabling patterns and relationships to be discerned which are not apparent in the raw data (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The common purpose of these techniques is to summarise both variability (that is the spread of the numbers) and the centre of data. Sekaran (2000:397) describes the mean of a sample as “a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data without unnecessarily inundating one with each of the observations in a data set or sample”. The standard deviation of a sample is defined as an index of the spread of a distribution or the variability in the data. Given these definitions the mean and standard deviation of each variable are detailed in Table 5.2 below:

Table 5.2 Sample sizes, mean scores and standard deviations for the leadership style and organisational commitment dimensions.

DIMENSION	EXCEL CODE	VALID N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Idealised influence (attributed)	IA	197	2.85	0.87
Idealised influence (behaviour)	IB	197	2.79	0.72
Inspirational motivation	IM	197	2.87	0.77
Individualised consideration	IC	197	2.56	0.93
Intellectual stimulation	IS	197	2.69	0.79
Contingent rewards	CR	197	2.81	0.82
Management-by-exception-active	MBEA	197	2.19	0.85
Management-by-exception-passive	MBEP	197	1.15	0.83
Transformational Leadership	TF	197	2.75	0.73
Transactional Leadership	TA	197	2.05	0.42
Laissez-faire	LF	197	0.88	0.87
Affective Commitment	AC	162	2.43	1.05
Continuance Commitment	CC	162	2.17	1.10
Normative Commitment	NC	162	1.77	1.05

Table 5.2 contains descriptive data for the five transformational leadership subscales, three transactional subscales, one laissez-faire subscale and the three organisational commitment scales. The distribution of scores for the sample contained reasonable variance and normality for use in subsequent analyses.

All leadership variables hold a sample size of 197, while all commitment variables, where leaders did not rate themselves, have a sample size of 162, indicating that there are no visible inconsistencies in the capturing of the data. The mean values for each of the transformational leadership subscales are all relatively close to 3 and those for transactional leadership ranges from 1.15 to 2.81. The mean values for laissez-faire is less than 1. The greatest standard deviation in the leadership factors is individualised consideration which attained approximately 0.93 standard deviation scores.

In some instances, the overall scores for the transformational and transactional leadership subscales are slightly less than what Bass and Avolio (1997) consider ideal levels for effective leadership. For the most effective leadership, they suggest mean scores of greater or equal to 3.0 for individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence (behaviour), idealised influence (attributed) and inspirational motivation. The mean scores for the subscales in this study are 2.56, 2.69, 2.79, 2.85 and 2.87, respectively.

Bass and Avolio (1997) also suggested a mean score of 2 for contingent reward, which is lower than the current study's mean score of 2.81. The suggested range for management-by-exception (active) was 1.0 to 2.0 and the mean score obtained for the current study was 2.19, which is slightly outside the range. Suggested scores for management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire are 1.0 and 0.0; however, mean scores for the current study were 1.15 and 0.88, respectively.

These scores suggest that some employees perceived their immediate managers as not displaying the ideal levels of transformational leadership behaviours. These behaviours included engendering trust, inspiring a shared vision, generating enthusiasm, encouraging creativity and providing coaching. The mean for contingent reward suggests that some employees perceived their immediate managers as doing an above average job of clarifying expectations and recognising accomplishments. This was also the case for the management-

by-exception (active) mean, which implies that some employees perceived their immediate managers as taking corrective action in a timely manner. Mean scores for management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire suggests some employees perceived that their immediate managers tended to wait too long before resolving a problem or taking corrective action.

The scores in Table 5.2 clearly suggest that a significant amount of central tendency existed, as the means of all components are relatively close to 2. The highest standard deviation is continuance commitment (CC), with a value of 1.10. Meyer and Allen (1997) do not provide guidance about expected, desired, average or ideal means for organisational commitment scales (namely affective, continuance, and normative commitment). Instead, they and other researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994) examined whether there was a positive or negative relationship between the different types of organisational commitment, the outcomes that are being measured, as well as the pattern for those findings. The desired pattern is having the highest scores for affective commitment, followed by normative commitment and then continuance commitment. The mean scores indicated in Table 5.2 for affective commitment are only marginally higher than for normative commitment and continuance commitment. Table 5.2 also indicates mean scores for continuance commitment which are slightly higher than those for normative commitment.

5.4 COMPARISONS BETWEEN LEADER AND EMPLOYEE RESPONSES.

T-tests are used to compare the means of two samples (independent). In this case, the significant differences, between the two samples on the dimensions of the questionnaires, are determined. The tests carry two critical assumptions regarding data distribution. The first assumption is that the values in the data set are independent (measured on randomly selected units from the study area). T-tests also require the data to be normally distributed, but are robust (not sensitive) to violations of the normality assumption unless the data is extremely non-normal. The results (descriptive statistics) are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: T-tests results for the MLQ (leaders and employees) responses.

VARIABLE	GROUP	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION	STD. ERROR MEAN
CR	1	162	2.7454	0.86887	0.06827
	2	35	3.0929	0.45409	0.07676
MBEP	1	162	1.217	0.8635	0.0678
	2	35	0.812	0.5704	0.0964
MBEA	1	162	2.26954	0.822263	0.06460
	2	35	1.83571	0.903308	0.15268
TA	1	162	2.07716	0.420245	0.03301
	2	35	1.91349	0.4258130	0.07197
IS	1	162	2.6240	0.82544	0.06485
	2	35	2.9714	0.51724	0.08743
IB	1	162	2.7202	0.76074	0.05977
	2	35	3.0857	0.30883	0.05220
IM	1	162	2.811	0.8004	0.0629
	2	35	3.143	0.5191	0.0877
IA	1	162	2.80	0.917	0.072
	2	35	3.11	0.526	0.089
IC	1	162	2.42541	0.953436	0.07490
	2	35	3.16428	0.42850	0.07242
TF	1	162	2.67541	0.76237	0.05989
	2	35	3.09571	0.370685	0.06265
LF	1	162	0.95	0.928	0.073
	2	35	0.58	0.465	0.079

Group Statistics: Code: 1 = Employees; 2 = Leaders

According to Table 5.3, on transactional leadership, the mean scores for employees are marginally higher than those of the leaders and on transformational leadership, the mean scores for leaders are marginally higher than those of the employees. The values of the standard deviation show that there is not much difference in variability of the scores of the two samples. Regarding the standard error mean Table 5.3 shows that the employees'

standard error mean is smaller than that of the leaders. This difference may be due to the large difference in the size of the two samples (leaders – N = 35; raters – N = 162). However, the standard error depends on both the standard deviation of the samples and the sample size. Norusis (1990) indicates that as the size of the sample increases the standard error decreases. Therefore, it is clear that as the sample size increases, the higher the possibility will be that the sample mean is not too far from the population mean.

Table 5.4 below presents the values of the Levene’s test for homogeneity of variance. This test measures the assumption that the variances of the two samples (leaders and employees) are equal. According to Table 5.4, the F-values are significant except for transactional leadership and management-by-exception (active). The non-significance implies that the variances are not significantly different and that the assumption of equal variances is not violated. Thus all other variances were significantly different and the assumption of equal variances was violated.

Table 5.4: Leader and employee responses T-test - Levene’s test for equality of variance

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
CR	Equal variances assumed	8.910	0.003
MBEP	Equal variances assumed	5.663	0.018
MBEA	Equal variances assumed	1.569	0.212
TA	Equal variances assumed	0.347	0.556
IS	Equal variances assumed	9.047	0.003
IB	Equal variances assumed	19.143	0.000
IM	Equal variances assumed	4.135	0.043
IA	Equal variances assumed	8.353	0.004
IC	Equal variances assumed	22.153	0.000
TF	Equal variances assumed	14.113	0.000
LF	Equal variances assumed	13.765	0.000

p ≤ 0.05

Since the values of the Levene's test for management-by-exception (active) and transactional leadership are insignificant ($p = 0.05$), the values of the equal variances assumed for the t-test are used. The results are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: MLQ (leaders and raters) T-test results for equality of mean scores.

		T-test for equality of means		
		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
CR	Equal variances assumed	-2.296	195	0.023
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.383	96.333	0.001
IS	Equal variances assumed	-2.388	195	0.018
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.192	76.798	0.002
MBEP	Equal variances assumed	2.648	195	0.009
	Equal variances not assumed	3.433	72.270	0.001
MBEA	Equal variances assumed	2.781	195	0.006
	Equal variances not assumed	2.617	46.945	0.012
TA	Equal variances assumed	2.085	195	0.038
	Equal variances not assumed	2.067	49.354	0.044
IB	Equal variances assumed	-2.789	195	0.006
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.606	133.224	0.000
IM	Equal variances assumed	-2.344	195	0.020
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.072	73.795	0.003
IA	Equal variances assumed	-1.979	195	0.049
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.777	85.513	0.007
IC	Equal variances assumed	-4.481	195	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-7.091	117.294	0.000
TF	Equal variances assumed	-3.177	195	0.002
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.849	105.865	0.000
LF	Equal variances assumed	2.288	195	0.023
	Equal variances not assumed	3.443	101.781	0.001

It is evident from Table 5.5 that the two samples differ significantly on all leadership dimensions. This is an indication of major differences between leadership behaviours that

are being practiced and behaviours that are being perceived by the employees.

The Mann-Whitney U-test is a distribution free, non parametric test used for comparing the central tendency of two independent samples. The test may also be applied to normally distributed population. It serves as an alternative to the T-test, but without the t-test limiting assumptions.

Table 5.6: Mann-Whitney U-Test for the leader and employee responses.

	IB	IM	IA	IC	IS	TF
Mann-Whitney U	2028.500	2206.000	2366.000	1493.500	2152.000	1886.500
Wilcoxon W	15231.500	15409.000	15569.000	14696.500	15355.000	15089.500
Z	-2.668	-2.073	-1.543	-4.408	-2.248	-3.102
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	0.038	0.123	0.000	0.025	0.002

	CR	MBEP	MBEA	TA
Mann-Whitney U	2159.500	2072.000	2098.500	2255.000
Wilcoxon W	15362.500	2702.000	2728.500	2885.000
Z	-2.219	-2.507	-2.419	-1.899
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.026	0.012	0.016	0.058

	LF
Mann-Whitney U	2311.000
Wilcoxon W	2941.000
Z	-1.729
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.084

Due to high the discrepancy in size between the two samples, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test was also done. The results are presented in Table 5.6. These results indicate significant differences between the two samples on all dimensions with an exception of idealised influence (Attributes) as well as transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership.

5.5 RELIABILITY

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to estimate the reliability of the MLQ and OCQ instruments of this research. As advised by Sekaran (2000), and discussed earlier in section 4.9.1, coefficients less than 0.6 are considered poor, coefficients greater than 0.6, but less than 0.8, are considered acceptable and coefficients greater than 0.8 are considered good.

5.5.1 Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient Scores for the MLQ

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated to estimate the reliability of the MLQ instrument and results are given in Table 5.7 below. The average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the MLQ instrument is 0.902, which is good.

The results in Table 5.7 below indicate reasonably high alphas and that the MLQ factors generally are reliable. Therefore, for this research, the MLQ instrument is a reliable measure of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership.

Table 5.7: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for MLQ Factors (N=197)

SUMMARY FOR SCALE: Mean = 109.9746 Std. Dev. = 22.00018 Valid N: 46				
Variance = 484.008 Cronbach's Alpha = 0.902				
N=118	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q 1	107.6610	460.824	0.413	0.900
Q 1	107.2373	456.388	0.612	0.898
Q 2	107.1864	466.085	0.465	0.900
Q 3	108.4576	501.772	-0.322	0.911
Q 4	107.5847	477.612	0.081	0.905
Q 5	109.0763	510.379	-0.564	0.911
Q 6	107.5339	464.422	0.365	0.901
Q 7	109.1695	501.920	-0.413	0.909
Q 8	107.4068	457.423	0.549	0.899
Q 9	107.2712	450.131	0.687	0.897
Q 10	107.3644	440.490	0.792	0.895
Q 11	107.0593	461.475	0.510	0.899
Q 12	109.0847	503.839	-0.449	0.910
Q 13	107.0000	457.692	0.621	0.898
Q 14	107.2797	451.485	0.698	0.897
Q 15	108.0169	448.017	0.651	0.897
Q 16	107.5508	442.215	0.739	0.895
Q 17	108.4492	486.455	-0.073	0.907
Q 18	107.3305	444.804	0.754	0.896
Q 19	107.1017	457.357	0.559	0.898
Q 20	108.8475	498.079	-0.285	0.909
Q 21	107.1441	448.688	0.718	0.896
Q 22	107.5000	469.449	0.290	0.902
Q 23	106.9661	464.734	0.460	0.900
Q 24	107.7034	478.689	0.071	0.905
Q 25	106.8644	467.469	0.373	0.901
Q 26	107.2966	451.099	0.729	0.897
Q 27	107.7797	477.507	0.103	0.904
Q 28	109.0847	514.779	-0.600	0.913
Q 29	107.6780	458.357	0.481	0.899
Q 30	107.3814	446.597	0.770	0.896
Q 31	107.3559	445.103	0.732	0.896
Q 32	107.4915	449.773	0.703	0.897
Q 33	108.7712	503.323	-0.375	0.911
Q 34	107.2034	453.856	0.691	0.897
Q 35	106.9746	455.222	0.631	0.898
Q 36	107.1017	457.767	0.659	0.898
Q 37	107.3475	452.160	0.676	0.897
Q 38	107.3475	445.477	0.764	0.896
Q 39	107.2797	458.972	0.467	0.899
Q 40	107.5254	446.764	0.700	0.896
Q 41	107.0508	457.809	0.640	0.898
Q 42	107.2542	445.285	0.768	0.896
Q 43	106.8220	462.660	0.609	0.899
Q 44	107.2119	448.185	0.773	0.896
Q 45	107.0508	454.476	0.659	0.897

5.5.2 Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient Scores for the OCQ

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated in order to assess the reliability of the OCQ instrument for this research. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the OCQ are given in Table 5.8. The average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the OCQ instrument is 0.901, which is good.

Table 5.8: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for OCQ Factors (N=162)

SUMMARY FOR SCALE: Mean = 25.39 Std. Dev. = 10.480 Valid N: 12 Variance = 109.822 Cronbach's Alpha = 0.901				
N=159	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q 1	23.04	94.707	0.587	0.895
Q 2	23.19	92.901	0.630	0.892
Q 3	23.10	93.040	0.605	0.894
Q 4	22.78	94.920	0.619	0.893
Q 5	23.26	95.269	0.492	0.900
Q 6	23.36	95.674	0.523	0.898
Q 7	23.43	91.791	0.630	0.892
Q 8	23.82	91.251	0.659	0.891
Q 9	22.92	93.146	0.658	0.891
Q 10	23.12	88.650	0.747	0.886
Q 11	23.73	92.401	0.678	0.890
Q 12	23.55	93.591	0.634	0.892

The results in Table 5.8 indicate reasonably high alphas suggesting that the OCQ factors generally are reliable. Therefore, for this research, the OCQ instrument is a reliable measure of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

5.6 RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION ANALYSIS

As mentioned previously, the hypotheses of the study are concerned with establishing a relationship between leadership style and employee commitment. The relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment was investigated using two-tailed Pearson analysis. This provided correlation coefficients which indicated the strength and direction of linear relationship. The p-value indicated the probability of this relationship's significance. The results of the correlation analysis are presented below. As discussed earlier (in section 4.9.2), Devore and Peck (1993) provided a guideline for assessing resultant correlation

coefficients as follows: coefficients less than 0.5 represent a weak relationship, coefficients greater than 0.5, but less than 0.8, represent a moderate relationship and coefficients greater than 0.8 represent a strong relationship.

The individual research hypotheses documented earlier in section 4.2 of this research were tested. The results of these hypotheses are given below.

5.6.1 Hypothesis One

H₀₁: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

H_{a1}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.9 Summary of Hypothesis One Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transformational Leadership
Affective commitment	0.453 ($p < 0.0001$)

From Table 5.9, it is clear that there is a relatively weak, but significant, positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment ($r = 0.453, p < 0.0001$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (H₀₁) and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment.

5.6.2 Hypothesis Two

H₀₂: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

H_{a2}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.10: Summary of Hypothesis Two Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transformational Leadership
Continuance commitment	0.175 ($p < 0.026$)

From Table 5.10, it is evident that there is a very weak, but significant, positive relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment ($r = 0.175, p < 0.026$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (H₀₂) and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and continuance commitment.

5.6.3 Hypothesis Three

H₀₃: There is no statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

H_{a3}: There is a statistical significant relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.11: Summary of Hypothesis Three Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transformational Leadership
Normative commitment	0.256 ($p < 0.001$)

From Table 5.11, it is clear that there is a relatively weak, but significant, positive relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment ($r = 0.256, p < 0.001$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (H_{03}) and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment.

5.6.4 Hypothesis Four

H_{04} : There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

H_{a4} : There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.12: Summary of Hypothesis Four Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transactional Leadership
Affective commitment	0.093 ($p < 0.239$)

From Table 5.12, it is evident that there is an extremely weak, but insignificant, positive relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment ($r = 0.093, p < 0.239$). The researcher therefore cannot reject the null hypothesis (H_{04}) and concludes that there is insufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, of relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment.

5.6.5 Hypothesis Five

H_{05} : There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

H_{a5} : There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.13: Summary of Hypothesis Five Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transactional Leadership
Continuance commitment	0.179 ($p < 0.023$)

From Table 5.13, it is clear that there is a very weak, but significant, positive relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment ($r = 0.179, p < 0.023$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (H_{05}) and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, that there is a positive relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment.

5.6.6 Hypothesis Six

H_{06} : There is no statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

H_{a6} : There is a statistical significant relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.14: Summary of Hypothesis Six Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Transactional Leadership
Normative commitment	0.071 ($p < 0.373$)

From Table 5.14, it is evident that there is an extremely weak, but insignificant, positive relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment ($r = 0.071, p < 0.373$). The researcher therefore cannot reject the null hypothesis (H_{06}) and concludes that there is insufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, of relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment.

5.6.7 Hypothesis Seven

H₀₇: There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

H_{a7}: There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.15: Summary of Hypothesis Seven Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Laissez-Faire Leadership
Affective commitment	-0.312 ($p < 0.0001$)

From Table 5.15, it is evident that there is a relatively weak, but significant, negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment ($r = -0.312$, $p < 0.0001$). The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (H₀₇) and concludes that there is sufficient evidence, at the 1% level of significance, that there is a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment.

5.6.8 Hypothesis Eight

H₀₈: There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

H_{a8}: There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.16: Summary of Hypothesis Eight Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Laissez-faire Leadership
Continuance commitment	-0.102 ($p < 0.197$)

From Table 5.16 it is clear that there is a very weak, but insignificant, negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment ($r = -0.102, p < 0.197$). The researcher therefore cannot reject the null hypothesis (H_{08}) and concludes that there is insufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, of relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment.

5.6.9 Hypothesis Nine

H_{09} : There is no statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

H_{a9} : There is a statistical significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment to the organisation.

Table 5.17 Summary of Hypothesis Nine Results

Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$ N = 162 (Casewise deletion of missing data)	
	Laissez-faire Leadership
Normative commitment	-0.15 ($p < 0.057$)

From Table 5.17, it is evident that there is a very weak, but insignificant, negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment ($r = -0.15, p < 0.057$). The researcher therefore cannot reject the null hypothesis (H_{09}) and concludes that there is insufficient evidence, at the 5% level of significance, of relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment.

Within the research design of this study, as indicated in Figure 4.1, it was originally intended to perform a regression analysis to test for the hypothesis. However, this could not be conducted due to the correlation analysis results being weak, namely all correlation coefficients fall below 0.5, indicating a weak relationship between the leadership dimensions and organisational commitment within this study (Devore & Peck, 1993). Therefore, the weak correlation results inhibited a regression analysis of the hypothesis.

5.7 CONCLUSIONS

The empirical results of the research were presented in this chapter. Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis were presented to provide further insight. The following significant results were found: a weak, but significant positive linear relationship between transformational leadership and employee commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment). Furthermore, a weak, but significant, positive linear relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment was found. Additionally, it was found that there is a weak, but significant, negative linear relationship between laissez-faire leadership behaviour and affective commitment.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

After presenting the results of the research in the previous chapter, the implications of these results are now discussed in the light of the literature reviewed in the first few chapters of this research. Research limitations are identified and implications of the research are also discussed in this chapter.

6.2 RELIABILITY OF THE FINDINGS

Before discussing the research findings, with particular reference to the relevant literature and previous research, it is necessary to discuss the reliability of the findings of this research.

This research found the average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the MLQ instrument to be 0.902, which is good. Therefore for the purposes of this research, the MLQ instrument is deemed to be a reliable measure of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership.

The average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient obtained for the MLQ does substantiate the reliability of the MLQ. According to Bass and Avolio (1997) and Whitelaw (2001), the MLQ is valid and reliable and has been used extensively worldwide. Research conducted by Ackerman et al (2000) in South Africa yielded Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of 0.944, 0.736 and 0.803 for transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership, respectively. A recent study conducted by Hayward et al (2004) also produced Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of 0.771 and 0.691 for transformational and transactional leadership, respectively. However, research conducted by Botha (2001), in South Africa, yielded Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of 0.926, 0.372 and 0.660 for transformational, transitional and laissez-faire leadership, respectively. Botha (2001) found the MLQ instrument to be a reliable measure of transformational leadership and a poor

measure of transactional leadership. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of this research support the reliability findings of Ackerman et al (2000) and Hayward et al (2004). Additionally, this research's average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the MLQ supports the findings of authors such as Bass and Avolio (1997), Ackerman et al (2000) and Whitelaw (2001).

This research found the average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the OCQ instrument to be 0.901, which is good. Therefore, for this research, the OCQ instrument is a reliable measure of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Several studies have been conducted to examine the reliability (Cronbach's Alpha coefficient) of the OCQ. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported the reliability of the affective commitment scale as 0.87, of the continuance commitment scale as 0.75 and for the normative commitment scale as 0.79. Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) found alpha ranges of 0.74 to 0.87 for affective, 0.73 to 0.81 for continuance, and 0.67 to 0.78 for normative commitment. Cohen (1996) discovered alpha coefficients of 0.79 for affective, 0.69 for continuance, and 0.65 for normative commitment. Research conducted by Meyer et al (2002) yielded alpha coefficients of 0.82 for affective, 0.73 for continuance and 0.76 for normative commitment. Hayward et al (2004) also produced alpha coefficients of 0.791, 0.843 and 0.889 for affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, respectively. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of this research support the reliability findings of Dunham et al (1994) and Hayward et al (2004). Additionally, the average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the MLQ in this study supports the findings of authors such as Allen and Meyer (1990) and Cohen (1996).

6.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The above results suggest that although the relationship is not strong, there is a positive relationship between the transformational leadership behaviours and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment). This suggests that leadership behaviours which involve building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity and emphasising development is somewhat positively related to employee commitment. For affective commitment, the study suggests that these leadership behaviours are positively related to how employees feel about wanting to stay with the company. For

normative commitment, the study also suggests that the same leadership behaviours are similarly positive, though weakly related to how employees feel about their obligation to stay with the company. Similarly for continuance commitment, the study indicates that the same leadership behaviours are similarly positive, though more weakly related to how employees feel about their needing to stay with the company.

The findings that transformational leadership behaviours have a weaker relationship with normative commitment and continuance commitment than with affective commitment is also appropriate since employees who stay with an organisation because they feel obligated or need to do not exhibit the same enthusiasm and involvement as employees who stay with an organisation because they want to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As such, transformational leadership behaviours are not as strongly related to both normative and continuance commitment as to affective commitment. This is critical to the organisation as affective commitment results in better performance and more meaningful contributions than normative commitment and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Other researchers have found similar weak positive relationships between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment, normative commitment, as well as, continuance commitment. In a study undertaken by Kent and Chelladurai (2001) in intercollegiate athletics at an American University, it was found that individualised consideration has a positive correlation with both affective commitment ($r = 0.475$, $p < 0.001$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.354$, $p < 0.001$). They also found positive correlations between intellectual stimulation and both affective commitment ($r = 0.487$, $p < 0.001$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.292$, $p < 0.05$). Bycio, Hackett and Allen (1995) found a weak correlation between the transformational leadership dimensions and affective commitment. They found correlations of between $r = 0.39$ and $r = 0.45$, whereby the charisma scale shows the highest connection with $r = 0.45$. Also, Podsakoff and his colleagues (1996) reported weak correlation ranges from $r = 0.25$ to $r = 0.34$ between commitment and different dimensions of transformational leadership. In another study undertaken by Hayward, Goss and Tolmay (2004) in the South African electricity utility of Eskom Southern Region, it was found that transformational leadership has moderate positive correlation with affective commitment ($r = 0.5278$, $p < 0.000$). They found that there is no

significant linear relationship between transactional leadership and any of the commitment types.

The results also indicate a weak, but significant, positive relationship between transactional leadership and continuance commitment. This almost nonexistent correlation suggests that leadership behaviours involving exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-on objectives, highlighting problems, ignoring problems or waiting for problems to become serious before taking action, may not be related to how employees feel about having to stay with the organisation. These behaviours focus on “when” feedback is provided about negative performance (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Specifically, management-by-exception (passive) involves feedback that occurs only when problems become chronic, and laissez-faire involves no feedback. The longer leaders wait to deliver negative feedback about tasks, the greater the negative effect on employee performance (Bass, 1997).

In the present study, negative feedback about tasks that was either delayed or non-existent had a negative effect on commitment. Therefore, improving the “timeliness” of negative feedback about tasks might reduce the negative effect on affective and normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) even suggest that employees who have a strong continuance commitment stay with the organisation, because they do not want to lose the amount of time, money or effort invested or because they think they have no employment alternatives. While those who do not care about what they have invested into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation will have weaker continuance commitment. There was no statistically significant correlation between transactional leadership behaviours and affective commitment as well as between transactional leadership behaviours and normative commitment

The results indicate a weak, but significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviour and affective commitment. The results suggest that this leadership behaviour will have a negative influence on the affective commitment. The results presented also concur with the literature by Shamir, House and Arthur (1993), Shamir, Zakay, Breinin and Popper (1998) as well as Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) presented in chapter 3, which imply that leaders exhibiting transformational leadership styles are more effective in achieving significantly higher commitment levels than transactional leaders. The literature

also suggested that transformational leadership generally elicits greater levels of employee buy-in, with leaders encouraging employees to adopt the organisational vision as their own, through inspiration (Cacioppe, 1997, in Botha, 2001). Thus, employees feel a sense of belonging to the organisation and remain with the organisation because they want to, thus exhibiting affective commitment.

Because transformational leadership has been found to have a significant positive relationship with employee commitment, the organisation should attempt to develop this leadership style within the region as committed employees are most desirable. By implementing programmes that encourage leaders to develop transformational leadership style, the organisation will be able to improve the commitment levels of its employees.

One of the reasons why there is a weak correlation between transformational leadership behaviour and organisational commitment could be the fact that professionals derive their rewards from inward standards of excellence, from their professional societies and from the intrinsic satisfaction of their task (Toffler, 1990). He argues that professionals are committed to the task, not the job; to their standards, not their boss. And because they have degrees or diplomas, they easily move from one company to another. They are not good 'company men'; they are committed to the challenging environments where they can play with problems.

Haug and Dofny (1997) indicated that professionals' goals are directed primarily inward, at achieving the goals of the company and advancing within the company. The principal motivator for a professional is to have an interesting job and a feeling of personal and professional growth. They may be able to handle many shortcomings in the work situation, if the work itself is challenging. Raudsepp (1977) argues that the professionals' attitude towards their job is self-directing and they are normally quite happy when given limited supervision. They know they are part of a team, but they still prefer the company to have confidence in their capabilities so that they can earn greater independence. Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) suggest that this relationship could vary based on employees' perceptions of their ability to find another job with similar characteristics. Furthermore, it is the fear of loss that commits the person to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Having now discussed the results of the research and commented on the relation to the theory, it is necessary to discuss the limitations and implications arising from the study.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Empirical evidence appears to support the view that leadership style can influence the development of organisational commitment. These findings suggest that transformational leadership behaviours are positively related to affective, normative and continuance commitment. The findings also suggest that transactional leadership behaviours are positively related to continuance commitment.

Both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours have similar influence on continuance commitment. This indicates that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours were interdependent and have an interactive effect on continuance commitment. Depending on the situation, these two types of leadership behaviours can be displayed simultaneously in order for change to occur in continuance commitment. Therefore, managers might be able to increase employees' levels of continuance commitment by improving both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. The study supports Bass (1985a) views that transformational and transactional leadership paradigms comprise of complementary rather than polar constructs, with transformational leadership building on transactional leadership, but not vice versa. He recognises that both styles may be linked to the achievement of desired goals and objectives. Bass, Avolio and Goodheim (1987) also viewed that the two styles are complementary in the sense that transformational leadership style is ineffective in the total absence of a transactional relationship between leaders and subordinates.

Organisations that require their employees to develop organisational commitment should provide comprehensive training that will encourage leadership to exhibit leadership behaviours such as building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity, emphasising development, and recognising accomplishments. Leaders can play a role in building commitment by assuring that the organisation makes effort to address both the work content and the work context by engaging in management practices to minimize employee alienation. They should demonstrate their commitment to the employees by sharing

information, provide for the development and growth of employees within the organisation and offer more than market related incentives. In this era of empowered employees and teams, leaders still need to communicate to their subordinates the sense that the organisation respects them and values the contributions that they make.

6.5 LIMITATIONS

The findings of this study should be viewed with certain limitations in mind. A possible limitation of this study was the low response rate. Respondents in Eastern Region were not keen on, or familiar with, answering questionnaires. They also seemed sensitive about revealing confidential company information, which added to the difficulty of doing this research.

Another limitation of the current study relates to the characteristics or demographics of the sample. The study was conducted in Eskom Eastern Region dominated by mostly male participants. Results might have been different if percentages for race, age, marital status, gender, time with the organisation, time with an immediate supervisor, ethnicity and education were different.

Thus, these findings may not be generalisable to other electricity utility settings or to other types of organisations. Generalisability of the present findings should therefore be examined in future research in other regions, with mixed gender, older and more heterogeneous samples.

Despite these limitations this study has contributed in extending the literature on the variables associated with the development of organisational commitment.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As far as the samples are concerned, replication (and possible enlargement of the sample) of the study in other regions would be highly desirable. In this regard, similar studies at other electricity utilities (such as other Eskom regions and municipalities) would seem appropriate.

An attempt should also be made to determine the overall commitment experienced by professional employees.

Eskom should perform a detailed study to evaluate the exact leadership style currently being practised so that relevant training can be provided to encourage a leadership style which is conducive to the development of organisational commitment.

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between various leadership styles and various employee commitment styles in Eskom Eastern Region. This study found that the transformational leadership behaviours were positively related with affective, continuance and normative commitment, although not very strongly. This means that leadership behaviours which involve engendering trust, inspiring a shared vision, generating enthusiasm, encouraging creativity, providing coaching and recognising accomplishments, do explain some of the variation in how employees feel about wanting to, needing to, or feeling obligated to, stay with the organisation. The more they display these behaviours, the more employees may want to, need to, or feel obligated to stay.

Transactional leadership behaviours had a positive relationship with continuance commitment and indicate a lesser variance than transformational leadership behaviours. This means that leadership behaviours, which involve ignoring problems or waiting for problems to become chronic before taking action, explain only a little of the variation in how employees feel about needing to stay with the organisation. Managers may be able to improve their transactional leadership behaviours by giving negative feedback in a timely manner and using language that is both clarifying and encouraging.

These findings also reveal that the laissez-faire leadership behaviour has a negative relationship with affective commitment. This means that leadership behaviours, which involve avoiding getting involved when problems arise, will negatively impact on affective commitment. This explains some of the variation in how employees feel about not wanting to stay with the organisation

Overall findings from this study suggest that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours do play important roles in determining levels of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

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APPENDIX A: Calculations of mean scores and standard deviations

Dimension	EXCEL Code	Valid N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Idealised influence (attributed)	IA	197	2.85	0.87
Idealised influence (behaviour)	IB	197	2.79	0.72
Inspirational motivation	IM	197	2.87	0.77
Individualised consideration	IC	197	2.56	0.93
Intellectual stimulation	IS	197	2.69	0.79
Contingent rewards	CR	197	2.81	0.82
Management-by-exception-active	MBEA	197	2.19	0.85
Management-by-exception-passive	MBEP	197	1.15	0.83
Transformational Leadership	TF	197	2.75	0.73
Transactional Leadership	TA	197	2.05	0.42
Laissez-faire	LF	197	0.88	0.87
Affective Commitment	AC	162	2.43	1.05
Continuance Commitment	CC	162	2.17	1.10
Normative Commitment	NC	162	1.77	1.05

APPENDIX B: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q 1	196	2.76	0.977
Q 11	195	2.88	0.964
Q 16	194	2.56	1.238
Q 35	194	3.04	1.005
CR	197	2.8071	0.82075
Q 2	195	2.78	0.822
Q 8	196	2.70	1.036
Q 30	196	2.70	1.070
Q 32	196	2.58	1.109
IS	197	2.6857	0.78982
Q 3	195	1.37	1.283
Q 12	196	0.86	1.065
Q 17	190	1.35	1.148
Q 20	194	1.01	1.170
MBEP	197	1.145	0.8324
Q 4	193	2.28	1.290
Q 22	191	2.35	1.099
Q 24	192	2.1979	1.19001
Q 27	190	1.94	1.165
MBEA	197	2.19247	0.851213
Transactional	197	2.04808	0.424801
Q 5	197	0.87	1.089
Q 7	195	0.73	0.970
Q 28	196	0.84	1.155
Q 33	196	1.10	1.179
LF	197	0.88	0.874
Q 6	195	2.48	1.150
Q 14	194	2.76	1.007
Q 23	194	3.09	.877
Q 34	196	2.83	.954
IB	197	2.7851	.71523
Q 9	196	2.85	1.006
Q 13	196	3.02	0.933
Q 26	194	2.68	0.982
Q 36	196	2.93	0.850
IM	197	2.870	.7676
Q 10	196	2.68	1.147
Q 18	192	2.73	1.152
Q 21	194	2.94	1.073
Q 25	196	3.09	0.946
IA	197	2.85	0.869

Q 15	195	2.15	1.209
Q 19	196	2.88	1.048
Q 29	193	2.4767	1.21652
Q 31	196	2.69	1.206
IC	197	2.55668	0.926679
Transformational	197	2.75008	0.726084
Q 37	196	2.72	1.005
Q 40	188	2.62	1.139
Q 43	196	3.19	0.751
EF	197	2.84	0.817
Q 38	195	2.73	1.109
Q 41	195	3.04	0.876
ST	197	2.89	0.899
Q 39	194	2.76	1.072
Q 42	196	2.85	1.117
Q 44	196	2.83	1.056
Q 45	193	3.00	0.963
EE	197	2.8579	0.86845
Q 1	162	2.37	1.195
Q 4	162	2.62	1.121
Q 9	162	2.47	1.191
Q 10	162	2.28	1.371
AC	162	2.4336	1.05434
Q 2	161	2.20	1.256
Q 3	162	2.30	1.294
Q 5	162	2.13	1.324
Q 6	161	2.04	1.229
CC	162	2.167	1.1043
Q 7	162	1.98	1.337
Q 8	161	1.58	1.326
Q 11	162	1.67	1.226
Q 12	162	1.84	1.205
NC	162	1.77	1.052
Organisational	162	2.12242	0.8702792

APPENDIX C: Comparisons between Leaders and Employees responses

Independent samples T-Tests

Group Statistics: Code: 1 = Employees; 2 = Leaders

	Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Q 1	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.75	1.020	0.080	4.427	0.037	-0.299	194	0.765
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.80	0.759	0.128			-0.361	63.843	0.719
Q 11	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.83	1.014	0.080	6.587	0.011	-1.574	193	0.117
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	3.12	0.640	0.110			-2.101	72.979	0.039
Q 16	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.45	1.273	0.101	12.249	0.001	-2.644	192	0.009
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	3.06	0.919	0.158			-3.255	63.194	0.002
Q 35	1	Equal variances assumed	159	2.95	1.066	0.085	6.187	0.014	-2.591	192	0.010
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.43	0.502	0.085			-3.997	111.375	0.000
CR	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.7454	0.86887	0.06827	8.910	0.003	-2.296	195	0.023
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.0929	0.45409	0.07676			-3.383	96.333	0.001
Q 2	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.82	0.853	0.067	1.688	0.195	1.242	193	0.216
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.63	0.646	0.109			1.482	62.976	0.143
Q 8	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.62	1.054	0.083	2.285	0.132	-2.281	194	0.024
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.06	0.873	0.147			-2.576	57.776	0.013
Q 30	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.63	1.123	0.088	14.677	0.000	-2.027	194	0.044
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.03	0.707	0.119			-2.700	76.657	0.009
Q 32	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.45	1.140	0.090	13.407	0.000	-3.608	194	0.000
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.17	0.707	0.119			-4.847	78.035	0.000
IS	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.6240	0.82544	0.06485	9.047	0.003	-2.388	195	0.018
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.9714	0.51724	0.08743			-3.192	76.798	0.002

Q 3	1	Equal variances assumed	161	1.42	1.354	0.107	24.180	0.000	1.112	193	0.268
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	1.15	0.857	0.147			1.481	72.710	0.143
Q 12	1	Equal variances assumed	161	.93	1.107	0.087	2.421	0.121	1.972	194	0.050
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.54	0.780	0.132			2.459	67.574	0.016
Q 17	1	Equal variances assumed	155	1.44	1.185	0.095	9.248	0.003	2.335	188	0.021
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.94	0.873	0.147			2.825	65.689	0.006
Q 20	1	Equal variances assumed	159	1.09	1.216	0.096	5.902	0.016	2.153	192	0.033
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.63	0.843	0.143			2.707	69.135	0.009
MBEP	1	Equal variances assumed	162	1.217	0.8635	0.0678	5.663	0.018	2.648	195	0.009
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.812	0.5704	0.0964			3.433	72.270	0.001
Q 4	1	Equal variances assumed	158	2.35	1.311	0.104	2.897	0.090	1.449	191	0.149
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.00	1.163	0.197			1.564	54.888	0.124
Q 22	1	Equal variances assumed	156	2.42	1.107	0.089	1.034	0.310	1.759	189	0.080
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.06	1.027	0.174			1.844	53.225	0.071
Q 24	1	Equal variances assumed	157	2.2994	1.18465	0.09455	0.087	0.769	2.537	190	0.012
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	1.7429	1.12047	0.18939			2.629	52.348	0.011
Q 27	1	Equal variances assumed	156	2.04	1.174	0.094	0.362	0.548	2.476	188	0.014
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	1.50	1.022	0.175			2.706	53.758	0.009
MBEA	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.26954	0.822263	0.06460	1.569	0.212	2.781	195	0.006
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	1.83571	0.903308	0.15268			2.617	46.945	0.012
Transactional	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.07716	0.420245	0.03301	0.347	0.556	2.085	195	0.038
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	1.91349	0.425813	0.07197			2.067	49.354	0.044
Q 5	1	Equal variances assumed	162	.94	1.138	0.089	6.783	0.010	2.138	195	0.034
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.51	0.742	0.126			2.792	73.285	0.007
Q 7	1	Equal variances assumed	160	.82	1.021	0.081	11.258	0.001	2.837	193	0.005
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.31	0.530	0.090			4.184	97.873	0.000
Q 28	1	Equal variances assumed	161	.92	1.209	0.095	6.939	0.009	2.029	194	0.044
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.49	0.781	0.132			2.663	74.369	0.009
Q 33	1	Equal variances assumed	161	1.12	1.211	0.095	4.973	0.027	0.536	194	0.593

	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	1.00	1.029	0.174			0.595	56.481	0.554
LF	1	Equal variances assumed	162	.95	0.928	0.073	13.765	0.000	2.288	195	0.023
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	.58	0.465	0.079			3.443	101.781	0.001
Q 6	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.38	1.180	0.093	9.868	0.002	-2.828	193	0.005
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.97	0.857	0.145			-3.461	65.651	0.001
Q 14	1	Equal variances assumed	159	2.70	1.060	0.084	14.204	0.000	-1.768	192	0.079
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.03	0.664	0.112			-2.358	77.645	0.021
Q 23	1	Equal variances assumed	159	3.06	0.898	0.071	0.004	0.947	-1.012	192	0.313
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.23	0.770	0.130			-1.116	56.297	0.269
Q 34	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.77	0.983	0.077	1.656	0.200	-1.948	194	0.053
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.11	0.758	0.128			-2.298	61.622	0.025
IB	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.7202	0.76074	0.05977	19.143	0.000	-2.789	195	0.006
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.0857	0.30883	0.05220			-4.606	133.224	0.000
Q 9	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.77	1.038	0.082	3.810	0.052	-2.316	194	0.022
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.20	0.759	0.128			-2.824	64.984	0.006
Q 13	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.96	0.983	0.077	2.570	0.111	-2.072	194	0.040
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.31	0.583	0.098			-2.855	82.418	0.005
Q 26	1	Equal variances assumed	159	2.64	1.003	0.080	.391	0.533	-1.369	192	0.173
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.89	0.867	0.147			-1.503	55.937	0.139
Q 36	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.88	0.893	0.070	4.501	0.035	-1.876	194	0.062
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.17	0.568	0.096			-2.484	75.675	0.015
IM	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.811	0.8004	0.0629	4.135	0.043	-2.344	195	0.020
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.143	0.5191	0.0877			-3.072	73.795	0.003
Q 10	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.65	1.206	0.095	8.437	0.004	-0.853	194	0.395
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.83	0.822	0.139			-1.085	70.029	0.282
Q 18	1	Equal variances assumed	157	2.62	1.206	0.096	11.347	0.001	-2.859	190	0.005
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.23	0.690	0.117			-3.998	87.297	0.000
Q 21	1	Equal variances assumed	159	2.84	1.122	0.089	4.951	0.027	-2.830	192	0.005
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.40	0.651	0.110			-3.938	85.243	0.000

Q 25	1	Equal variances assumed	161	3.11	0.968	0.076	0.566	0.453	0.633	194	0.527
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.00	0.840	0.142			0.693	55.483	0.491
IA	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.80	0.917	0.072	8.353	0.004	-1.979	195	0.049
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.11	0.526	0.089			-2.777	85.513	0.007
Q 15	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.04	1.261	0.100	6.843	0.010	-2.766	193	0.006
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.66	0.765	0.129			-3.758	80.361	0.000
Q 19	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.78	1.082	0.085	4.959	0.027	-2.920	194	0.004
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.34	0.725	0.123			-3.751	71.326	0.000
Q 29	1	Equal variances assumed	158	2.2595	1.22178	0.09720	23.006	0.000	-5.683	191	0.000
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.4571	0.50543	0.08543			-9.255	131.333	0.000
Q 31	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.58	1.263	0.100	18.494	0.000	-2.786	194	0.006
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.20	0.719	0.122			-3.921	86.534	0.000
IC	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.42541	0.953436	0.07490	22.153	0.000	-4.481	195	0.000
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.16428	0.42850	0.07242			-7.091	117.294	0.000
Transformational	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.67541	0.76237	0.05989	14.113	0.000	-3.177	195	0.002
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.09571	0.370685	0.06265			-4.849	105.865	0.000
Q 37	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.66	1.042	0.082	8.605	0.004	-1.799	194	0.074
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.00	0.767	0.130			-2.185	64.583	0.033
Q 40	1	Equal variances assumed	153	2.54	1.203	0.097	15.323	0.000	-2.059	186	0.041
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	2.97	0.707	0.119			-2.827	85.649	0.006
Q 43	1	Equal variances assumed	161	3.17	0.803	0.063	5.316	0.022	-0.593	194	0.554
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.26	0.443	0.075			-0.848	90.009	0.398
EF	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.79	0.867	0.068	13.632	0.000	-1.904	195	0.058
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.08	0.465	0.079			-2.770	93.195	0.007
Q 38	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.68	1.170	0.092	15.230	0.000	-1.406	193	0.161
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	2.97	0.717	0.123			-1.910	75.639	0.060
Q 41	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.95	0.910	0.072	0.493	0.483	-2.988	193	0.003

	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.43	0.558	0.094			-4.037	79.371	0.000
ST	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.82	0.947	0.074	7.745	0.006	-2.285	195	0.023
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.20	0.545	0.092			-3.201	85.137	0.002
Q 39	1	Equal variances assumed	160	2.73	1.148	0.091	23.200	0.000	-.746	192	0.457
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	2.88	0.591	0.101			-1.111	94.475	0.270
Q 42	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.75	1.157	0.091	3.486	0.063	-2.601	194	0.010
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.29	0.789	0.133			-3.308	69.989	0.001
Q 44	1	Equal variances assumed	161	2.72	1.097	0.086	7.448	0.007	-3.236	194	0.001
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.34	0.639	0.108			-4.499	84.137	0.000
Q 45	1	Equal variances assumed	159	2.92	0.997	0.079	0.807	0.370	-2.383	191	0.018
	2	Equal variances not assumed	34	3.35	0.691	0.119			-3.007	66.172	0.004
EE	1	Equal variances assumed	162	2.7809	0.91452	0.07185	9.882	0.002	-2.721	195	0.007
	2	Equal variances not assumed	35	3.2143	0.47798	0.08079			-4.009	96.324	0.000

APPENDIX D: Non-Parametric Tests

Mann-Whitney Test

	Q 1	Q 11	Q 16	Q 35	CR	Q 2	Q 8	Q 30	Q 32	IS
Mann-Whitney U	2807.500	2398.500	1969.000	2157.500	2159.500	2400.000	2180.500	2332.000	1799.500	2152.000
Wilcoxon W	3437.500	15439.500	14849.000	14877.500	15362.500	3030.000	15221.500	15373.000	14840.500	15355.000
Z	-.035	-1.210	-2.614	-2.218	-2.219	-1.419	-2.249	-1.674	-3.479	-2.248
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.972	0.226	0.009	0.027	0.026	0.156	0.025	0.094	0.001	0.025

	Q 3	Q 12	Q 17	Q 20	MBEP	Q 4	Q 22	Q 24	Q 27	MBEA	Tactional
Mann-Whitney U	2575.000	2300.000	2094.500	2233.000	2072.000	2287.000	2224.000	1989.000	1914.500	2098.500	2255.000
Wilcoxon W	3170.000	2930.000	2724.500	2863.000	2702.000	2917.000	2854.000	2619.000	2509.500	2728.500	2885.000
Z	-.560	-1.839	-2.177	-1.955	-2.507	-1.647	-1.782	-2.637	-2.619	-2.419	-1.899
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.575	0.066	0.029	0.051	0.012	0.100	0.075	0.008	0.009	0.016	0.058

	Q 5	Q 7	Q 28	Q 33	LF	Q 6	Q 14	Q 23	Q 34	IB
Mann-Whitney U	2316.000	2047.500	2328.000	2772.500	2311.000	2033.500	2375.000	2535.500	2329.000	2028.500
Wilcoxon W	2946.000	2677.500	2958.000	3402.500	2941.000	14913.500	15095.000	15255.500	15370.000	15231.500
Z	-1.840	-2.743	-1.777	-.156	-1.729	-2.668	-1.431	-.891	-1.716	-2.668
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.066	0.006	0.076	0.876	0.084	0.008	0.152	0.373	0.086	0.008

	Q 9	Q 13	Q 26	Q 36	IM	Q 10	Q 18	Q 21	Q 25	IA
Mann-Whitney U	2197.000	2329.500	2515.000	2354.000	2206.000	2720.500	2029.000	2045.000	2504.000	2366.000
Wilcoxon W	15238.000	15370.500	15235.000	15395.000	15409.000	15761.500	14432.000	14765.000	3134.000	15569.000
Z	-2.172	-1.728	-.959	-1.664	-2.073	-.333	-2.552	-2.609	-1.103	-1.543
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.030	0.084	0.337	0.096	0.038	0.739	0.011	0.009	0.270	0.123

	Q 15	Q 19	Q 29	Q 31	IC	Tformational
Mann-Whitney U	2058.000	1981.000	1145.000	2105.000	1493.500	1886.500
Wilcoxon W	14938.000	15022.000	13706.000	15146.000	14696.500	15089.500
Z	-2.537	-2.896	-5.649	-2.430	-4.408	-3.102
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	0.004	0.000	0.015	0.000	0.002

	Q 37	Q 40	Q 43	EF	Q 38	Q 41	ST
Mann-Whitney U	2371.000	2238.500	2813.000	2430.000	2473.500	1985.000	2260.500
Wilcoxon W	15412.000	14019.500	3443.000	15633.000	15514.500	14865.000	15463.500
Z	-1.559	-1.590	-.017	-1.339	-.919	-2.960	-1.916
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.119	0.112	0.987	0.180	0.358	0.003	0.055

	Q 39	Q 42	Q 44	Q 45	EE
Mann-Whitney U	2673.500	2115.000	1916.000	2084.000	2040.000
Wilcoxon W	15553.500	15156.000	14957.000	14804.000	15243.000
Z	-.164	-2.424	-3.127	-2.242	-2.613
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.870	0.015	0.002	0.025	0.009

APPENDIX E: MLQ RELIABILITY TESTS RESULTS

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.902	46

Item-Total Statistics

N=118	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q 1	107.6610	460.824	0.413	0.900
Q 1	107.2373	456.388	0.612	0.898
Q 11	107.0593	461.475	0.510	0.899
Q 16	107.5508	442.215	0.739	0.895
Q 35	106.9746	455.222	0.631	0.898
Q 2	107.1864	466.085	0.465	0.900
Q 8	107.4068	457.423	0.549	0.899
Q 30	107.3814	446.597	0.770	0.896
Q 32	107.4915	449.773	0.703	0.897
Q 3	108.4576	501.772	-0.322	0.911
Q 12	109.0847	503.839	-0.449	0.910
Q 17	108.4492	486.455	-0.073	0.907
Q 20	108.8475	498.079	-0.285	0.909
Q 4	107.5847	477.612	0.081	0.905
Q 22	107.5000	469.449	0.290	0.902
Q 24	107.7034	478.689	0.071	0.905
Q 27	107.7797	477.507	0.103	0.904
Q 5	109.0763	510.379	-0.564	0.911
Q 7	109.1695	501.920	-0.413	0.909
Q 28	109.0847	514.779	-0.600	0.913
Q 33	108.7712	503.323	-0.375	0.911
Q 6	107.5339	464.422	0.365	0.901
Q 14	107.2797	451.485	0.698	0.897
Q 23	106.9661	464.734	0.460	0.900
Q 34	107.2034	453.856	0.691	0.897
Q 9	107.2712	450.131	0.687	0.897
Q 13	107.0000	457.692	0.621	0.898
Q 26	107.2966	451.099	0.729	0.897
Q 36	107.1017	457.767	0.659	0.898
Q 10	107.3644	440.490	0.792	0.895
Q 18	107.3305	444.804	0.754	0.896
Q 21	107.1441	448.688	0.718	0.896
Q 25	106.8644	467.469	0.373	0.901
Q 15	108.0169	448.017	0.651	0.897
Q 19	107.1017	457.357	0.559	0.898

Q 29	107.6780	458.357	0.481	0.899
Q 31	107.3559	445.103	0.732	0.896
Q 37	107.3475	452.160	0.676	0.897
Q 40	107.5254	446.764	0.700	0.896
Q 43	106.8220	462.660	0.609	0.899
Q 38	107.3475	445.477	0.764	0.896
Q 41	107.0508	457.809	0.640	0.898
Q 39	107.2797	458.972	0.467	.899
Q 42	107.2542	445.285	0.768	.896
Q 44	107.2119	448.185	0.773	.896
Q 45	107.0508	454.476	0.659	.897

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
109.9746	484.008	22.00018	46

APPENDIX F: OCQ RELIABILITY TESTS RESULTS

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.901	12

Item-Total Statistics

N=159	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q 1	23.04	94.707	0.587	0.895
Q 2	23.19	92.901	0.630	0.892
Q 3	23.10	93.040	0.605	0.894
Q 4	22.78	94.920	0.619	0.893
Q 5	23.26	95.269	0.492	0.900
Q 6	23.36	95.674	0.523	0.898
Q 7	23.43	91.791	0.630	0.892
Q 8	23.82	91.251	0.659	0.891
Q 9	22.92	93.146	0.658	0.891
Q 10	23.12	88.650	0.747	0.886
Q 11	23.73	92.401	0.678	0.890
Q 12	23.55	93.591	0.634	0.892

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
25.39	109.822	10.480	12

APPENDIX G: CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP STYLE AND THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

		CR	IS	MBEP	MBEA	TA	LF	IB	IM	IA	IC	TF	AC	CC	NC
CR	Pearson Correlation	1	.696(**)	-.505(**)	0.024	.330(**)	-.665(**)	.755(**)	.784(**)	.808(**)	.735(**)	.847(**)	.390(**)	.180(*)	.255(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.742	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.001
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
IS	Pearson Correlation	.696(**)	1	-.494(**)	0.041	.152(*)	-.600(**)	.685(**)	.719(**)	.740(**)	.743(**)	.872(**)	.384(**)	.184(*)	.220(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.00	0.566	0.033	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.019	0.005
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
MBEP	Pearson Correlation	-.505(**)	-.494(**)	1	0.134	.418(**)	.651(**)	-.457(**)	-.468(**)	-.522(**)	-.472(**)	-.542(**)	-.257(**)	-0.026	-.167(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.061	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.745	0.034
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
MBEA	Pearson Correlation	0.024	0.041	0.134	1	.771(**)	0.075	0.101	-0.008	-0.007	-0.043	0.014	0	0.111	0.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.742	0.566	0.061		0.000	0.294	0.159	0.914	0.922	0.546	0.840	0.997	0.161	0.854
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
TA	Pearson Correlation	.330(**)	.152(*)	.418(**)	.771(**)	1	0.047	.255(**)	.194(**)	.175(*)	0.136	.201(**)	0.093	.179(*)	0.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.033	0.000	0.000		0.515	0.000	0.006	0.014	0.056	0.005	0.239	0.023	0.373
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
LF	Pearson Correlation	-.665(**)	-.600(**)	.651(**)	0.075	0.047	1	-.590(**)	-.614(**)	-.719(**)	-.639(**)	-.711(**)	-.312(**)	-0.102	-0.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.294	0.515		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.197	0.057
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
IB	Pearson Correlation	.755(**)	.685(**)	-.457(**)	0.101	.255(**)	-.590(**)	1	.760(**)	.761(**)	.702(**)	.868(**)	.397(**)	.155(*)	.276(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.159	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.048	0.000
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
IM	Pearson Correlation	.784(**)	.719(**)	-.468(**)	-0.008	.194(**)	-.614(**)	.760(**)	1	.782(**)	.719(**)	.888(**)	.428(**)	0.119	.255(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.914	0.006	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.132	0.001
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
IA	Pearson Correlation	.808(**)	.740(**)	-.522(**)	-0.007	.175(*)	-.719(**)	.761(**)	.782(**)	1	.817(**)	.924(**)	.407(**)	.156(*)	.214(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.922	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.048	0.006
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
IC	Pearson Correlation	.735(**)	.743(**)	-.472(**)	-0.043	0.136	-.639(**)	.702(**)	.719(**)	.817(**)	1	.903(**)	.413(**)	.167(*)	.193(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.546	0.056	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.033	0.014
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
TF	Pearson Correlation	.847(**)	.872(**)	-.542(**)	0.014	.201(**)	-.711(**)	.868(**)	.888(**)	.924(**)	.903(**)	1	.453(**)	.175(*)	.256(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.84	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.026	0.001
	N	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	162	162	162
AC	Pearson Correlation	.390(**)	.384(**)	-.257(**)	0	0.093	-.312(**)	.397(**)	.428(**)	.407(**)	.413(**)	.453(**)	1	.348(**)	.698(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.0000	0.000	0.001	0.997	0.239	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162
CC	Pearson Correlation	.180(*)	.184(*)	-0.026	0.111	.179(*)	-0.102	.155(*)	0.119	.156(*)	.167(*)	.175(*)	.348(**)	1	.440(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.022	0.019	0.745	0.161	0.023	0.197	0.048	0.132	0.048	0.033	0.026	0.000		0
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162
NC	Pearson Correlation	.255(**)	.220(**)	-.167(*)	0.015	0.071	-0.15	.276(**)	.255(**)	.214(**)	.193(*)	.256(**)	.698(**)	.440(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.005	0.034	0.854	0.373	0.057	0.000	0.001	0.006	0.014	0.001	0.000	0.000	
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	162

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX H: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Key

Description	Leadership Factors	Raw Factors	#	#	#	#
	Transformational	Idealised Influence (Attributes)	10	18	21	25
	Transformational	Idealised Influence (Behaviours)	6	14	23	34
	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	9	13	26	36
	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	2	8	30	32
	Transformational	Individualised Consideration	15	19	29	31
Constructive transaction	Transactional	Contingent Reward	1	11	16	35
Corrective transaction	Transactional	Management by Exception (Active)	4	22	24	27
Corrective transaction	Transactional	Management by Exception (Passive)	3	12	17	20
	Non- Transactional	Laissez-Faire	5	7	28	33
	Outcome 1	Extra Effort	39	42	44	45
	Outcome 2	Effectiveness	37	40	43	
	Outcome 3	Satisfaction	38	41		

APPENDIX I: Organisational Commitment Questionnaire Scoring Key

Organisational Commitment Factor	#	#	#	#
Affective Commitment	1	4	9	10
Normative Commitment	7	8	11	12
Continuance Commitment	2	3	5	6

APPENDIX J: SURVEY NOTIFICATION

05 June 2006

Dear Sir/Madam

This is to notify you that you have been selected for a survey which will be conducted in your region during the month of June 2006. Questionnaires will be administered for the purpose of research. These questionnaires are part of a research into the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to the organisation. This research is aimed to contribute to the scientific knowledge in the organisational behaviour and management fields.

The first questionnaire is called the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* and consists of two versions, the leader and the rater version. The leader version is to be completed by the managers (that is of MMU, PPU, MMM and PPP mangrade) and the rater version is to be completed by the subordinates (that is of PA0 and CCU mangrade). This questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Instructions on how to complete will be provided on the covering page of the questionnaire.

The second questionnaire is called the *Organisational Commitment Questionnaire* which will be completed by the subordinates (that is of PA0 and CCU mangrade) only. This questionnaire should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Instructions on how to complete will also be provided on the covering page of the questionnaire.

The results of these questionnaires are for research purposes only, and the anonymity/confidentiality of respondents will be guaranteed. All completed questionnaires

will be coded and names of respondents will be erased to ensure this. Should you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact your HR practitioner.

Thank you for giving up your valuable time to assist me in the research.

Yours sincerely,

Mr M H Nyengane

APPENDIX K: COVERING LETTER

05 June 2006

Dear Sir/Madam

Attached please find a copy from the HR manager Mr Charles Ndhlovu of questionnaires mentioned previously. These questionnaires are part of a study into the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment to the organisation. The questionnaires are being administered for the purpose of research. This research is aimed at contributing to the scientific knowledge in the organisational behaviour and management fields.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Leader and Rater version)

Developed by B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio (1997), this questionnaire consists of two versions, the leader and the rater version. The leader version is to be completed by the managers (that is of MMU, PPU, MMM and PPP mangrade) and the rater version is to be completed by the subordinates (that is of PA0 and CCU mangrade). This questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Instructions on how to complete it are provided on the covering page of the questionnaire.

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Developed by J. P. Meyer and N. J. Allen (1997), this questionnaire measures the type and level of employee commitment. Only subordinates (that is of PA0 and CCU mangrade) are to complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Instructions on how to complete it are provided on the covering page of the questionnaire. The candidate completing this questionnaire should indicate who their leader is.

The results of these questionnaires are for research purposes only and the anonymity/confidentiality of respondents is guaranteed. All completed forms will be coded and names of respondents will be erased to ensure this. Should you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact your HR practitioner or myself. When you have completed all the questions, please **SEND** the completed questionnaires back to me via Groupwise.

Thank you for giving up your valuable time to assist me in this research.

Yours sincerely,

Mr M H Nyengane

APPENDIX L: MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (RATER)

RATER: -----

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Rater Booklet (MLQM)

by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio

DIRECTIONS: This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of your manager/supervisor. Describe the leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items below by entering in the block a number from the rating scale that best reflects your perception. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. When you have completed all the questions, please **SEND** this questionnaire back to me via Groupwise. THANK YOU.

Use the following rating scale:

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently if not always

THE PERSON I AM RATING...

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise
6. Talks about their most important values and beliefs
7. Is absent when needed
8. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems

THE PERSON I AM RATING...

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 9. Talks optimistically about the future | <input type="text"/> |
| 10. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her | <input type="text"/> |
| 11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets | <input type="text"/> |
| 12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action | <input type="text"/> |
| 13. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished | <input type="text"/> |
| 14. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose | <input type="text"/> |
| 15. Spends time teaching and coaching | <input type="text"/> |
| 16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved | <input type="text"/> |
| 17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in 'if it ain't broke, don't fix it:' | <input type="text"/> |
| 18. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group | <input type="text"/> |
| 19. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group | <input type="text"/> |
| 20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action | <input type="text"/> |
| 21. Acts in ways that builds my respect | <input type="text"/> |
| 22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures | <input type="text"/> |
| 23. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions | <input type="text"/> |
| 24. Keeps track of all mistakes | <input type="text"/> |
| 25. Displays a sense of power and confidence | <input type="text"/> |
| 26. Articulates a compelling vision of the future | <input type="text"/> |
| 27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards | <input type="text"/> |
| 28. Avoids making decisions | <input type="text"/> |

THE PERSON I AM RATING...

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 29. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others | <input type="text"/> |
| 30. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles | <input type="text"/> |
| 31. Helps me to develop my strengths | <input type="text"/> |
| 32. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments | <input type="text"/> |
| 33. Delays responding to urgent questions | <input type="text"/> |
| 34. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission | <input type="text"/> |
| 35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations | <input type="text"/> |
| 36. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved | <input type="text"/> |
| 37. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs | <input type="text"/> |
| 38. Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying | <input type="text"/> |
| 39. Gets me to do more than I expected to do | <input type="text"/> |
| 40. Is effective in representing me to higher authority | <input type="text"/> |
| 41. Works with me in a satisfactory way | <input type="text"/> |
| 42. Heightens my desire to succeed | <input type="text"/> |
| 43. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements | <input type="text"/> |
| 44. Increases my willingness to try harder | <input type="text"/> |
| 45. Leads a group that is effective | <input type="text"/> |

APPENDIX M: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Leader)

LEADER : -----

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Leader Booklet (MLQM)

by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio

DIRECTIONS: This questionnaire is designed to help you describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items below by entering in the block a number from the rating scale that best reflects your perception. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. When you have completed all the questions, please **SEND** this questionnaire back to me via Groupwise. THANK YOU.

Use the following rating scale:

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently if not always

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs
7. I am absent when needed
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems
9. I talk optimistically about the future
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets

Use the following rating scale:

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently if not always

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action | <input type="text"/> |
| 13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished | <input type="text"/> |
| 14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose | <input type="text"/> |
| 15. I spend time teaching and coaching | <input type="text"/> |
| 16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved | <input type="text"/> |
| 17. I show that I am a firm believer in 'If it ain't broke, don't fix it.' | <input type="text"/> |
| 18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group | <input type="text"/> |
| 19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group | <input type="text"/> |
| 20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action | <input type="text"/> |
| 21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me | <input type="text"/> |
| 22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures | <input type="text"/> |
| 23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions | <input type="text"/> |
| 24. I keep track of all mistakes | <input type="text"/> |
| 25. I display a sense of power and confidence | <input type="text"/> |
| 26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future | <input type="text"/> |
| 27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards | <input type="text"/> |
| 28. I avoid making decisions | <input type="text"/> |
| 29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others | <input type="text"/> |
| 30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles | <input type="text"/> |
| 31. I help others to develop their strengths | <input type="text"/> |

Use the following rating scale:

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently if not always
------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------------------

- 32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments
- 33. I delay responding to urgent questions
- 34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission
- 35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations
- 36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved
- 37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs
- 38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying
- 39. I get others to do more than they expected to do
- 40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority
- 41. I work with others in a satisfactory way
- 42. I heighten others' desire to succeed
- 43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements
- 44. I increase others' willingness to try harder
- 45. I lead a group that is effective

APPENDIX N: Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Name: -----

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe your personal views of the following statements as objectively as you can, by entering in the block a number from the rating scale that best reflects your views. The information requested from you is being collected for research purposes. This questionnaire is not a test, and all information collected will be anonymous, so please respond honestly. When you have completed all the questions, please **SEND** this questionnaire back to me via Groupwise. THANK YOU.

Use the following rating scale:	0 Strongly Disagree	1 Disagree	2 Neutral	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree
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- 1. I feel like part of the family at this organisation
- 2. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave this organisation now
- 3. I would not leave this organisation right now because of what I would stand to lose
- 4. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me
- 5. It would be very costly for me to leave this organisation right now
- 6. For me personally, the cost of leaving this organisation would be far greater than the benefit
- 7. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now
- 8. I would violate a trust if I quit my job with this organisation now
- 9. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation
- 10. I feel emotionally attached to this organisation
- 11. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now
- 12. I would not leave this organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it

Thank you for your co-operation